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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

EDITED BY

WILLIAM B. DANA.

VOLUME FORTY-EIGHTH

FROM JANUARY TO JUNE, INCLUSIVE, 1863.

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THE

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JANUARY, 1863.

SUGAR CANE, BEET ROOT, AND SORGHUM,

WITH REFERENCE TO THEIR CONSUMPTION AND CULTURE.

Sugar, which enters so largely into the food of civilized people of the present day, and is so important an element of modern commerce, has only in the last two centuries begun to exercise a political influence, and, in some degree, bias the destinies of nations. The use of sugar in the East dates from time immemorial, but the barbarians of Western Europe acquired a taste for it only when the returning Crusaders brought it back among other of the marvels which they had encountered when invading the country of the Saracens. In the twelfth century the awakened demand had promoted traffic, and the Saracens introduced its culture into Rhodes, Cypress, Sicily, and the south of Spain. In the rich lands of Andalusia it found a genial soil, and became one of the elements of Spanish greatness, and it added to the commercial importance of the Portuguese. With the enterprise of those nations it passed into the Canaries and Maderias, and followed the fortunes of Columbus to St. Domingo. Its culture there rewarded the labor of the planter in a manner to astonish even those who had been familiar with the rich yield in the fields of Andalusia. With the increased supply of sugar the market widened, and the people of Western Europe were yearly more anxious to purchase, while the increased prosperity that followed the discovery of America and the opening of the mines of precious metals, gave them the means to indulge in the luxury. From St. Domingo the culture was not slow in finding its way to the other West Indian islands and to the Spanish Main. The Portuguese introduced it into Brazil, and with a good supply of labor the product there reached some 75,000 tons per annum in the middle of the sixteenth century. The nations that had sought the American continent in search of gold, found their greatest source of wealth in the "sugar islands," of which St. Domingo remained the chief. The leading West-

ern powers were not long in coveting these possessions, and they changed hands frequently in the course of subsequent wars, through which, in the middle of the 17th century, England became possessed of Jamaica, there being then but three sugar works on the island. The severe labor of the cane-field demanded many robust laborers, and England undertook, in a treaty with Spain, to supply those laborers for a given number of years from the coast of Africa. The laborers did not seem to multiply, but were kept up by importation into the islands, from the rich soil of which they extracted that wealth which poured into the laps of Lisbon and Havre and London. The blacks of Africa were mostly purchased with the wares of Lancashire, and were, so to speak, wrought up with the soil of the West Indies into sugar, which swelled the volume of European wealth.

It was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that, under French rule, the first plantation was established in Louisiana; and when that great country became a part of the United States there were eighty-one sugar plantations there, which, in some degree, supplied the growing wants of the Western States. Up to that time the sugar used in Europe and America was cane sugar, drawn from the tropics, and its culture had spread into most of the known tropical regions of the earth. The market for sugar had become so extensive, and the people of Europe so accustomed to its use that it had become a necessity. When, therefore, the wars that grew out of the French revolution gave the supremacy of the seas to England, that power held the supply of sugar in her grasp, and Europe depended upon her for a supply, as it has latterly upon the Southern States for cotton. That accident of war, however, revolutionized the sugar trade in Europe. The great demand for the article stimulated invention, and the French Emperor offered a liberal reward for a substitute for cane sugar. A great number of substitutes presented themselves, but none proved successful except that made from beet root, and this, in the course of a few years, has become a rival to the cane sugar in the consumption of Europe. In France, particularly, the consumption of sugar is of three descriptions: that of cane, produced in the French and in foreign colonies, and beet root sugar made in France. The consumption of the latter in 1831, was 10,000 tons against 81,651 of cane. At present it is 120,000 tons against 80,000 tons of cane. In other words, the whole increase of the consumption of sugar in France has been derived from beet root. This mastery of the latter article over the former was attended by a long struggle between the opposing interests. At first beet root was protected against cane. They were then placed on an equality, and finally government favor leaned upon the side of cane sugar, without, however, staying the success of the beet root manufacture, which has spread into all the countries of Europe. The great success of the beet root culture led to numberless experiments upon other vegetables, in order to develope some still cheaper and more effectual method of producing the desired article, and these efforts were more or less successful. Chemistry distinguishes two leading sugars. That furnished by cane is found to be identical with that yielded by many other vegetables, such as certain trees of the palm family, the chestnut, the maple, Indian corn stalks, and many roots, of which the chief, in point of value, is the beet. The other sugar is contained in grapes, pears, apples, melons, and most kinds of fruit. This species of sugar (glucose) will not granulate or crystalize like that of cane; but it is made in considerable quantities

for certain uses, of which the most important is to mix with grape juice in those seasons when that fruit has less than the desired quantity for the production of good wine. The first mentioned sugar is that generally known to commerce. It is in the United States largely produced from the maple for home use of families. The production of it has in the last few years been greatly stimulated by the advanced price of all sugars. The quantity of maple sugar produced in the United States at the date of the last census was 34,252,436 lbs. Of this, one half was produced in the States of New York and Vermont. New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Michigan produced nearly the remaining half. This sugar is manufactured from the forest trees, and cannot properly be called a culture which can be extended at will, although it affords large employment in the districts where it exists in winter months.

The attention of French science was devoted to the other vegetables which were likely to be available for the use of sugar boilers. The success of M. BRACONNET, of Nancy, at one time caused a great sensation. He had, by the aid of concentrated sulphuric acid, transmuted flax, hemp, certain woods, and straw into that description of sugar called "glucose," pound for pound. The news of this discovery, like that of PAINE's invention to make illuminating gas out of water, set the public aghast. Sugar was to be within the reach of all, and the imagination found material for sugar in the strangest associations—old sails, ropes, furniture, and cast-off summer clothing were to be turned into frost-work for wedding cakes, into confectionary for the old and sugar plums for the young. Coffee was to be sweetened with straw and candy sucked out of old shirts. A practical turn was given to the expression, a "sweet sleep," since the linen sheets and the straw bed were both waiting transmutation into the sugar bowl; after having made sleep peaceful it was to make food palatable, and the fancy ran riot in the wealth of sugar that abounded, but only to be disappointed, since no valuable results have yet flowed from the experiments then considered so important.

There were also efforts to vary the objects of sugar culture. Melons and corn stalks were used with some success, but the yield of juice was not sufficiently large to be profitable. In 1851, M. DE MONTIGNY, French consul in China, had his attention drawn to the plants from which sugar in the North of China is extracted—*sorgho*, or *holeus saccharatus*—and he sent some of the seeds to his government. These were planted in Algiers and Provence, and subsequent experiments excited great hopes from the culture. The Toulon Agricultural Association subjected it to numerous experiments, from which it resulted that the plant was capable of producing a crystalized syrup that might rival that of the cane and the beet. The juice of the sorgho furnishes three important products: sugar identical with cane, alcohol, and a fermented drink analogous to cider.

The plant grown in France was said to be richer in saccharine principle than any known plant except the vine. Beet root contains 8 to 10 per cent of sugar, and sorgho 16 to 20 per cent, from which 10 per cent of pure alcohol could be produced. The refuse was regarded as very desirable food for cattle. On the strength of these researches the culture was greatly extended in France. On trial, however, on a large scale it was not found to answer expectations in respect to sugar. It was determined, nevertheless, that it could yield alcohol 30 per cent cheaper than

beet root, consequently it supplanted to some extent those factories which had devoted themselves to alcohol rather than to sugar, and they turned their attention exclusively to sugar.

The seeds of twenty-one varieties of the sorgho plant were received in 1854 at the Patent Office at Washington, and were distributed through the country for use. The peculiarities of the plant, its resemblance in appearance and habits to Indian corn, led to the inference that it would flourish in any region where that plant would thrive. This inference has been justified in the results. The plant is cultivated much in the manner of corn. It grows from 7 to 14 feet high, and, it is asserted, gives a heavier weight of fodder from the same piece of ground than any other plant. There are a great many varieties of it, the most conspicuous of which is the African, or imphee; but it is supposed that the apparent variation arises only from climate and location—that sorgho, imphee, broom corn, and dourah are all of the same origin, *andropogon sorghum*. There are, as in corn, many varieties, which require longer time to ripen than others, and those which mature at the earliest time are the most desirable, since it is requisite that the plants should fully ripen their seeds to produce granulating juice abundantly.

According to the last census, the production of sugar in each State was as follows:

States.	Cane sugar. hhds.	Cane molasses. gallons.	Sorghum molasses. gallons.	Maple sugar. pounds.	Maple molasses. gallons.
Alabama.....	108	81,694	67,172	543	.....
Arkansas.....	...	.....	.....	8,097	115,673
California	...	.....	100	....	.....
Connecticut.....	...	.....	395	44,259	2,277
Delaware	...	761	852	....	.....
Florida	1,761	435,890	.....	....	.....
Georgia.....	1,167	546,770	102,450	991	20
Illinois.....	....	.....	797,096	131,751	21,423
Indiana	....	.....	827,777	1,515,594	203,028
Iowa.....	....	.....	1,993,474	248,951	97,751
Kansas	....	.....	79,482	1,548	2
Kentucky	....	.....	365,861	380,941	139,086
Louisiana	297,816	14,535,157	.....	....	66,470
Maine.....	....	.....	.....	306,742	.....
Maryland.....	....	45	862	63,281	2,404
Massachusetts...	....	.....	.....	1,006,078	.....
Michigan.....	....	.....	266,509	2,988,018	384,521
Minnesota.....	....	.....	14,974	370,947	21,829
Mississippi.....	244	3,445	8,207	99	.....
Missouri	....	22,305	776,101	142,450	18,289
New Hampshire..	....	.....	.....	2,255,012	.....
New Jersey	....	36	360	3,455	8,088
New York	....	15	265	10,816,458	131,841
North Carolina..	38	12,494	263,475	30,845	17,759
Ohio	....	.....	707,416	3,323,942	392,932
Oregon	....	.....	419	....	.....
Pennsylvania....	....	.....	9,605	2,768,965	127,455
Rhode Island....	....	15	.....	....	5
South Carolina..	198	15,144	51,041	205	.....
Tennessee.....	....	294,322	485,828	117,359	6,754
Texas	690	358,937	115,051	69	3,600
Vermont.....	....	.....	.....	9,819,939	.....
Virginia	....	50	221,017	937,643	100,139
Wisconsin.....	283	.....	19,258	1,584,406	83,003
Total.....	302,205	16,337,050	7,176,042	38,863,568	1,944,299

The column of cane sugar is in hhds. of 1,000 lbs. each. The column of sorghum "molases" is very indefinite. It does not appear whether it is "juice," or "syrup," or "molasses." If it means juice, then it will be equal to 7,000,000 lbs. of sugar. If it means syrup, it is equal to 49,000,000 lbs. of sugar, which would be an enormous production. It is probable that it means syrup—giving a very satisfactory result. It would seem that Iowa was by far the largest producer. Nevertheless, it will be observed that considerable amounts of the Chinese sugar cane syrup were made in the Southern States—103,450 gallons in Georgia, 365,861 in Kentucky, 263,475 in North Carolina, 51,041 in South Carolina, 485,828 in Tennessee, and 115,051 in Texas.

The many advantages of the crop here have caused its culture to extend in the Western States, and in the last two years, when circumstances have given such high value to sugar, the production of sorgho syrup in Iowa, Illinois, and Indiana has been sufficient to interfere with the sale of other syrups. It will be seen that the estimated crop this year in Illinois is from two to 3,000,000 gallons, against only 797,000 in 1859.

Recently, in pursuance of an invitation from the Winnebago County Agricultural Society, a convention of the sorghum growers and manufacturers of the Northwestern States assembled at Rockford. The attendance was quite large, and the samples of syrup and sugar also exceeded in number and quality any previous exhibition ever made. There were a variety of opinions in relation to the seeds used in planting, and some inability to distinguish between imphee and sorghum, many thinking them to be identical. The convention finally adopted the following:

Seeing there are so many names given to the different kinds of cane, according to color and seed, or any other peculiarity, to have a more uniform designation we offer the following:

Resolved, That in the estimation of this Convention there are only three kinds of cane, viz.: Chinese sugar cane, having black seeds, growing a prong from two to seven inches long; the second or tufted variety, to be known as African; and the third variety, lately introduced, known as the Otaheitan, long heads, from seven to twelve inches in length, and from one to two in thickness.

There was much discussion in relation to the deterioration of seed. Some of the members asserted that they had used the seed several years in succession, and that it maintained its virtue; others that in the second year it lost its sugar; some of the members prefered sorghum, and others imphee. In some cases black imphee would not granulate, but yellow and sorghum would. It seemed to be a condition that the seeds must be quite ripe to granulate. The following facts seem to have been established by the debates: *First.* The fact was certainly established that there is no difficulty in growing the Chinese sugar cane, the imphee cane, and the Otaheitan in this latitude. *Second.* That the successful manufacture of either or all into syrup is a fixed fact. *Third.* That the granulation of these kinds has been successfully accomplished, specimens of sugar having been exhibited at the convention proving this. *Fourth.* Taking the evidence of Mr. Cory, of Indiana, whom we regard as a pioneer in the business, the Otaheitan will granulate and make handsome sugar beyond a peradventure. *Fifth.* That the seed from the Chinese sugar cane—which has been hitherto regarded as useless except for planting purposes—can be employed in feeding cattle, hogs, horses, &c., and also can be

successfully manufactured into a flour which makes a very toothsome griddle cake. It was offered in evidence, and not controverted, that an acre of cane would produce forty bushels of seed, and that that product was equal in fattening qualities to the same number of bushels of corn. *Sixth.* That the juice of the Chinese cane, and doubtless the other qualities, without cooking, can be fed to hogs, cattle, and horses with admirable fattening results; in fact, that in this respect, an acre of cane is equal to two or three of corn. This last is a very important feature, and should challenge the attention of stock raisers. *Seventh.* That the stalks, leaves, and heads will make an excellent quality of paper. *Eighth.* That the *bagasse* can be made to yield excellent manuring qualities, and can be prepared as a fuel, to the saving of large quantities of wood and coal in the season of syrup boiling. The report of the committee on sugars and syrups was as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SUGARS AND SYRUPS.

Your committee respectfully report that the following described samples are on exhibition, to which we have appended such information as we have been able to obtain:

One specimen of syrup by P. Woolworth, of Rockford, from cane that had been frozen. This was worthless, being spoiled by the frost.

H. Foote, of Winnebago County.—Five specimens of syrup. He has manufactured 1,800 gallons.

Sylvester and Daniel Scott, Winnebago County.—Thirteen specimens syrup. Have made 1,428 gallons. It took from eight to fourteen gallons of juice to make one of syrup. No clarifying done.

C. A. Huntington, Rockford.—Three specimens. Manufactured 1,600 gallons, at a cost of fifteen cents per gallon. Juice averages seven gallons to one of syrup.

C. Cory & Sons, Lima, Lagrange County, Ind.—Six specimens syrup, and five of sugar made from the Chinese cane, and two from Othaheitan cane.

L. Meacham, Du Page County.—Specimens of sugar made from sorghum. He cut the joints out of the cane before crushing.

J. M. Frink, McHenry County.—Eight specimens of syrup, of which two were from Chinese sorghum. He manufactured 1,085 gallons, at an expense of 11½ cents per gallon. Eight cords of wood were consumed; men's labor at $1 25 per day, and team at $1. He used Gate's evaporator and made thirty gallons per day. He showed four samples of sugar from the Chinese cane. It has stood in the shock eight weeks. The syrup was two weeks in granulating.

V. R. Beach, Independence, Iowa.—Two kinds of sorghum syrup. Manufactured 2,600 gallons. Juice averaged seven gallons to one of syrup. Cost of manufacture seven cents per gallon. One of the specimens was from Jube Day, Independence, Iowa, and the other from Harvey B. Hatch, Independence, Iowa.

Danley & Davis, Winnegago County.—Three specimens of sorghum syrup. Made 1,800 gallons at a cost of 12½ cents per gallon.

Orlando Clark, Rockford.—Two specimens of syrup, one from early imphee. Obtained twenty-two gallons from one-tenth of an acre. Manufactured 180 gallons at a cost of ten cents per gallon.

D. S. Pardee, Winnebago County.—Six specimens of sorghum syrup and three of imphee syrup. Made 800 gallons at a cost of fifteen cents per gallon. Nine gallons of juice made one of syrup.

Henry Spaulding, Ogle County.—Five specimens syrup. Made 3 000 gallons, at a cost of ten cents per gallon. Counting wood $3 per cord, labor 75 cents

per day, and team $1 per day. Made from 75 to 100 gallons per twenty-four hours. Eight gallons of juice to one of syrup.

E. H. Seward, McHenry County.—Eighteen specimens of syrup, part sorghum and part imphee. Made 2,200 gallons at a cost of 10½ cents per gallon. Average of thirteen gallons of juice to one of syrup.

Belcher, of Chicago.—Three samples of refined syrup.

Lewis Nichold, Winnebago County.—One specimen of syrup. Made 400 gallons. Averaged eight gallons of juice to one of syrup.

Almeron Dodge, Winnebago County.—One specimen syrup. Made 900 gallons. Average seven to eight gallons of juice to one of syrup.

Isaac Crisman, Sycamora, DeKalb County.—Six specimens of syrup. Made 3,000 gallons, at a cost of fifteen cents per gallon. His samples of white (or as some called it, yellow) imphee was the best. The cane of this had been frozen twice, and it was made into syrup October 25th. He got thirty-five gallons from twenty-four rods of land, with moderate stand of cane. It was manufactured at the rate of seven gallons per hour. The syrup stood forty-five degrees by the sachremeter. The cane grows thirteen feet high and does not fall down like sorghum. The syrup granulates easily. His white imphee yielded one gallon of syrup to four and-a-half of juice. Grown on rich loam. He showed four specimens of sugar. Made 1,000, or 1,200 pounds, and obtained eleven pounds to the gallon. He has the seed of the white imphee for sale.

P. W. Gates, Chicago.—Six specimens syrup. He could manufacture at a cost of four cents per gallon, when he made 1,000 per twenty-four hours. Juice averaged eight gallons to one of syrup. He showed a sample of sugar.

Charles Fletcher, of Rockford.—Five specimens. Made 1,300 gallons, at a cost of 11½ cents per gallon. Juice ranged from five to ten gallons to one of syrup.

B. B. Hovey, Winnebago County.—Two samples of syrup. Made 2,665 gallons, at a cost of nine cents per gallon; seven gallons juice to one of syrup.

J. M. Moss, Waverly, Iowa.—Seven specimens of syrup, and two of sugar. He made 2,763 gallons of syrup, at a cost of ten cents per gallon. The sugar was made from yellow imphee.

W. G. Cole, Rockford.—Two specimens of syrup. The yield was 105 gallons from one-half acre, made by Hall & Co.

A. T. Moss, Boone County.—One sample yellow imphee syrup. Made 1,200 gallons.

O. N. Brainard, Marion, Iowa.—Two samples sugar; one from sorghum and one from imphee. Made 1,200 pounds sugar, averaging twelve pounds to the gallon. He had three samples of syrup; made 3,600 gallons, at a cost of 5 8-10 cents per gallon. Juice nine or ten to one of syrup.

J. E. Youngman, Rockford.—Seven samples of syrup. Made 1,870 gallons, at a cost of 11½ cents per gallon. Juice averaged seven to one of syrup.

C. D. Roberts, Jacksonville.—Eight samples of syrup and four of sugar. Made 2,500 gallons of syrup.

Pope & Buckbee, Winnebago County.—Seven samples sorghum syrup. Made 3,500 gallons, at a cost of fifteen cents per gallon. Juice range from seven to one of syrup.

J. Milner, Rockford.—Three specimens of syrup. Made 150 gallons, at a cost of thirteen cents per gallon. Juice seven to one.

G. Anderson, Rockford.—Two samples syrup. Made 250 gallons.

M. Johnston, Rockford.—One sample syrup. Made 1,050 gallons, at a cost of twelve cents.

A. Heart, Winnebago County.—Two samples syrup.

N. Smedley, Boone County.—Three specimens syrup. Made 1,400 gallons, at

a cost of twelve cents per gallon. Juice averaged six and-a-half gallons to one of syrup. He had one specimen of sugar.

Your committee would respectfully report that they have spared no pains in examining the different samples of syrups on exhibition. From the good samples they set aside twenty-seven as ranking first among those exhibited; that as a matter of course there are among this lot, some of superior excellence and purity, but they are so numerous that your committee concluded to designate no one as worthy the claim of superior excellence. Certain it is that, judging from the samples, great attainments and advancement have been made within the last year in the manufacture of syrups; and with the necessary care and attention to the subject of manufacture, as brought before the Convention, will enable almost any one to manufacture a very palatable article of syrup. How far it will be practicable to manufacture for sale and export every one should be his own judge.

Among the sugars on exhibition, your committee would make especial notice of the following:

L. Meacham, of Will County.—Sugar partly refined, made from Chinese cane.

C. D. Roberts, Jacksonville.—Nine different samples, made of different kinds of cane, and from the mush state to the refined grain.

Cory & Sons, Lagrange, Ind.—Several different samples made from Chinese and Otaheitan canes.

J. C. Frink, McHenry County.—Four kinds, made from Chinese cane.

C. N. Brainard, Marion, Iowa.—Two samples in the crude state, made from the African and Chinese canes.

D. S. Pardee, Winnebago County.—Several samples from imphee, in the mush state.

Isaac Crisman, Sycamore County.—Three specimens from the different kinds of cane.

One sample of dark sugar, owner unknown.

J. M. Moss, Waverly, Iowa.—One sample made of the yellow cane.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

H. P. Kimball,
I. S. Hyatt,
A. F. Moss,
C. W. Murtfeldt,
E. H. Seward.

A committee reported that there were forty manufacturers in Winnebago County, who had made 50,000 gallons of syrup at an average cost of thirty cents per gallon.

It would appear that the culture has taken deep root in the North west, and that it is feeling its way towards an important interest. It will probably be found necessary, as in France, in relation to the beet root sugar, that the manufacturers should become entirely distinct. The farmers in confining their attention to the culture, may produce a profitable crop, which might find a ready market with manufactures of sugar in the neighborhood.

The discussions at the convention showed that very much depended upon the character of the soil in relation to the value of the juice. This peculiarity is the case in Mexico, where almost all the grains and vegetables which grow in that dry, clear climate, are remarkable for their extraordinary sweatness. The common corn-stalk abounds in saccharine matter to such an extent as to furnish the native population with molasses, which, although hardly as good as the inferior molasses of Louisiana,

might doubtless be much improved by a more perfect mode of manufacture than that adopted by the Mexican population. The molasses is purchased there by those who do not supply their own wants at a rate of $1 50 per gallon. The beet of New Mexico contains so unusual a quantity of saccharine matter, that the manufacture of beet sugar is said to offer strong inducements to gentlemen of enterprise and capital to embark in the business. The only sugar which is brought to Santa Fe now, is transported from the Valley of the Mississippi across a desert of nearly 900 miles in extent, and the cost of transportation increases its price about ten cents a pound, so that the most inferior kinds range from nineteen to twenty-five cents in value.

The supply of sugar in the United States was obtained mostly from Cuba and Brazil, but of late years the Louisiana crop has so progressed, that it now exerts a marked influence upon prices in the United States. The following table from official sources will show the quantities consumed in the United States, the quantity per head of the consumers, and the average prices in New York:

	Imported. tons.	Louisiana. tons.	Total tons.	Pounds per head.	Aver. price. cents.	Maple sugar. tons.
1831.....	44,178	35,000	79,178	13½	4	.....
1841	65,601	38,000	103,601	13½	4½	16,385
1851	201,493	120,331	321,824	30	5½	17,126
1852	196,558	118,659	315,217	29	4¾	15,000
1853	200,610	172,379	379 989	36½	5½	13,000
1854	150,854	234,444	385,298	34	5	12,300
1855	192,607	185,145	377,752	31½	6½	14,500
1856	255,292	123,468	378,760	30¾	8½	14,500
1857	241,765	39,000	280,765	23½	9	17,000
1858	244,758	143,734	388,492	25	6¾	16,000
1859	289,034	192,150	431,184	26	7	17,000
1860	296,950	118,331	415,281	26½	7½	19,431
1861	241,420	122,399	363,819	23½	6½	18,000
1862, 10 months.....	292,129	.....	292,129	28	10½	20,000

This table describes the great fluctuation in the sugar market, caused by the failures of the Louisiana sugar crop in 1857. The sugar crop in that State in 1853 was very large, and as a consequence, aided by financial pressure, the price fell very low, encouraging consumption while it discouraged planters. In the following year a great decrease was manifest in the crops. Many of the planters had turned their attention to other crops, particularly cotton, which was more sure. The number of sugar houses was reduced from 1,481 in 1852, to 1,299 in 1855, and the reduction was progressive. As a consequence, there was a larger dependence upon the foreign sugar, and this increased American demand happened at a time when a disease broke out among the French vines, causing a demand for sugar for distilation, and the price rose all over the world, when in 1857 the Louisiana crop failed almost altogether. This was a fruitful cause of the financial revulsion in that year. The alarming state of affairs attracted the attention of Congress, which fitted out a vessel to procure fresh supplies of cuttings from Bahia, British Guiana, and for free distribution among the planters. The high price of sugar drew large quantities hither from countries not before known as sugar exporters, and a new article called melado, which has continued to form a portion of the sugar supply made its appearance.

The same circumstances gave an immense impulse to the maple sugar production. The winter of 1856–57 was one of the most favorable for the manufacture, and the high prices induced the farmers to labor indefatigably with the sap kettles, producing an unusually large result.

This state of the markets gave great effect to the efforts of the Patent Office, in extending the culture of sorgho. Expectations were, however, a little highly wrought, and resulted in some disappointment in respect of sugar, although much syrup was produced. The renewed efforts that have grown out of the circumstances of the sugar crop point to greater results, but the question will present itself whether sorghum is, after all, better than beet root. If an extensive experiment in sorghum in France, ended in a preference for beet root, it may turn out that the same root may ultimately be prefered here. The spread of the beet root culture in Europe has been very great. The production is now nearly as follows:

	No. factories.	Tons.
France	341	151,514
Belgium	81	101,000
Zollverein	251	10,000
Poland	49	18,191
Austria	261	111,204

This is a quantity very nearly equal to 800,000,000 pounds of sugar, which enters into the food of the people of Europe from the culture of beet root, to which the industry settled, after having experimented extensively in sorgho and other articles. The production in Poland is far in excess of local wants, and about ten per cent of the product is exported annually into Russia by way of Dantzic, duty free, in competition with cane sugar. It is obvious that those articles which best pay the grower, will ultimately be the source for the supply of sugar, and that condition is governed by the quantity of sugar that the paint will give per acre. It is evident that some plants may give more juice than others which, however, may stand thicker upon the land, and thus give more juice from the acre. In relation to cane sugar, a great increase of production has of late years taken place. Land formerly very productive ran down to a lower figure, but has recovered by the use of fertilisers. The British and French West Indies formerly gave 6,000 pounds to the acre. They will now not give 2,000 pounds. The Mauritius formerly gave 2,000 pounds to the acre, but by the use of guano, and the increased supply of Coolies from India, it has been brought up to 6,000 pounds per acre, and is in a high state of prosperity. The Brazil gives 5,000 pounds per acre; Cuba, 4,000 pounds; St. Domingo, 1,100 pounds, and in Louisiana, 1,000 pounds per acre is obtained in ordinary years. When the price of sugar is high these rates are remunerative. In Europe, however, an acre of land will give 20,000 pounds of beet root, sold to the manufacturers. These roots contain ten per cent sugar; eight per cent was formerly extracted, but improved processes obtain nine per cent, or 1,800 pounds of sugar per acre. The value of this sugar is tested in the price, and it brings nine cents per pound when the best cane sugar brings eight cents. The production of cane sugar is restricted by want of labor, but beet root sugar is not restricted in that respect, and may form a part of the regular labors of every farmer. The refuse is as valuable as that of sorgho.

In the convention above quoted, Mr. Clark stated that he got twenty-

two gallons of syrup from one-tenth of an acre, which would be 220 gallons per acre, at a cost of ten cents per gallon. If this gave 7 pounds of sugar to the gallon, the result would be 1540 pounds to the acre. Mr. J. H. SMITH, of Illinois, states that from an acre he produced 225 gallons of syrup, and from this he obtained 1,575 pounds of crystalizable sugar, being 7 pounds to the gallon. This, at ten cents per pound, is $157 per acre, besides 115 gallons of molasses. The prospect is, however, that the market for sugar in the United States will grow with great rapidity. It is remarkable in the above table that the weight per head used has increased from 13½ pounds in 1841, to as high as 36 pounds in 1854, when the price was low, and it has since mantained a high figure, but there is a la.ge amount of Southern sugar, as well as maple, which works into the consumption of the West, and which does not appear in official reports. It is then obvious that the sugar consumed has been two-thrds imported, and one-third of Louisiana growth in ordinary years; but in 1854 the reverse was the case, when the crop then being large, so depressed prices that it was not profitable to import sugar. In the last year the Southern supply has been wholly wanting, and the importation has been large for the ten months, being equal to twenty-eight pounds per head for the 20,000,000 of Northern people, but it has sold at high prices, governed by the duty and the depreciation of paper. Thus, raw sugar in Cuba is 4½ cents per pound, the duty is 2½ cents per pound, making 7 cents, but the duty must be paid in gold, which is 33 per cent premium. This adds one-third to the duty, making it cost 7⅓ cents. The exchange to pay 4½ cents in Cuba is 147, which adds 1¾ cents to the cost, making it 9⅛ cents per pound, and the price in New York is 10 cents, or 150 per cent higher than in Havana. Under these circumstances, Northern sugar should succeed, but in its turn home-grown sugar as a manufacture must now pay the three per cent tax. This is small in proportion, since every pound of sugar now consumed at the North pays five cents tax, and when manufactured into confectionary three per cent more. Of this tax, 1¾ cents per pound is due to the currency or "green backs," on which the Secretary of the Treasury alleges he borrows without interest.

In France and most countries of Europe, local sugar has come to supplant cane sugar to such an extent, as to interfere with the government revenues. In the United States the same field is open to the Northern grower, whether the article adopted is beet root or sorghs.

A UNIFORM NATIONAL CURRENCY.*

BY A WESTERN BANKER.

NEARLY a year ago the Secretary of the Treasury in his annual report, proposed two plans for the issue of a uniform national currency.

The first plan proposed was substantially the one under which the demand notes had already been issued. The dangers arising from increasing the currency of the country by a national issue large enough to be of benefit to the country, were thus concisely stated:

"The temptation, especially great in times of pressure and danger, to issue notes without adequate provision for redemption beyond means, however carefully provided and managed; the hazard of panics, precipitating demands for coin, concentrated on a few points and a single fund; the risk of a depreciated, depreciating, and finally worthless paper money; the immeasurable evils of dishonored public faith and national bankruptcy; all these are possible consequences of the adoption of a system of government circulation. It may be said, and perhaps truly, that they are less deplorable than those of an irredeemable bank circulation. Without entering into that comparison, the Secretary contents himself with observing that, in his judgment, these possible disasters so far outweigh the probable benefits of the plan that he feels himself constrained to forbear recommending its adoption."

The principal features of the second plan were, "(1st) a circulation of notes bearing a common impression and authenticated by a common authority; (2d) the redemption of these notes by the associations and institutions to which they may be delivered for issue; and (3d) the security of that redemption by the pledge of the United States stocks, and an adequate provision of specie."

It proposed to create a national bank department, from which government notes should be issued to banking institutions, they depositing with the department a pledge of United States stocks to insure the prompt redemption of the currency. In other words, to establish a national bank department, similar in most respects to the present Bank Department of New York, and to offer "*inducements* to solvent existing institutions to withdraw the circulation issued under State authority, and substitute that provided by the authority of the Union. Thus, through the *voluntary* action of the existing institutions, aided by wise legislation, the great transition from a currency heterogeneous, unequal, and unsafe, to one uniform, equal, and safe, may be speedily and almost imperceptibly accomplished."

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury was prepared with the expectation then prevalent, that the rebellion was soon to be crushed, and the war substantially brought to a close by the midsummer following. Soon, however, the magnitude of the war became evident, the vast expenditure of nearly a million of dollars daily, made huge drafts upon the Treasury, and Congress saw that the urgent necessities of the government could not be supplied by the tardy action of banks, nor depend wholly on the sale of the bonds of the government. A general suspension of specie payments had taken place, and on February 25th, and July 11th,

* The Report of the Secretary of the Treasury for 1862 has appeared since this article was written.

1862, the Congress of United States passed two separate acts, authorizing the issue in the aggregate of three hundred millions of paper currency, which was made a legal tender by the terms of the law. Thus, the Congress of the United States, by the force of circumstances, or rather by the necessities of the government, speedily reversed the proposal of the Secretary of the Treasury; the second plan was postponed, and the first, which was thought to be the least desirable, was brought successfully into operation.

The second plan yet remains untried. Our present Congress, at its last session, passed by a very large majority the act of July 11th, 1862, which, in addition to the issue of $150,000,000 of legal tender notes, also provided that $35,000,000 of this issue should be in notes of small denominations, and also gave the Secretary of the Treasury authority to establish a government engraving establishment. Both of these provisions, though opposed by the bank interest, were enacted by a Congress largely composed of members interested in the banks of the different States which had heretofore enjoyed the monopoly of furnishing the paper currency of the country. There can be but little doubt, therefore, of the passage by the same body of an act establishing a national bank department, provided the administration in power shall recommend such action. We believe its adoption is demanded by the people, and that no time ever has or ever will again exist like the present to remedy the greatest financial evil of the times, which for the last fifty years has been a fruitful subject of discussion.

The circulation of the banks of the United States, according to the last official report in 1861, was about $203,000,000, as follows:

Eastern States	$45,000,000
Middle States	53,000,000
Southern States	40,000,000
Southwestern States	35,000,000
Western States	30,000,000
Total	$203,000,000

Which may be again thus classified:

Stock secured banks	$36,000,000
Chartered banks	90,000,000
Western banks discredited	22,000,000
Southern banks discredited	55,000,000
Total	$203,000,000

The charters of the State banks of Ohio and Indiana, and a large proportion of the safety fund banks of New York, together with other institutions, are to expire within the next three years.

The currency of the Northwestern States to the amount of $25,000,000 is either already retired, or is so discredited as not hereafter to circulate except in the immediate vicinity of its place of issue.

If to these amounts were to be added the currency of the States in rebellion, now hopelessly bankrupt, the aggregate would make a sum total of at least $100,000,000, or nearly one-half of the bank currency of the country.

The bank currency is therefore now less than at any time during the

last twenty years, and if the chartered banks are to expire with the limitation of their charters, only about one-half of the bank currency of 1861 will remain to undergo the gradual transition from a State to a national system.

The legal tender currency of the government has received a universal circulation. It is now fulfilling the function heretofore performed by gold and silver, which necessity has converted into articles of merchandise. It has been greedily received in the South among enemies, as well as in the North among friends, on the farthest frontier, and in the Pacific States where paper was never before recognized as money; it has been hoarded by the people and the army; and it has been held in reserve by the banks themselves, because it would redeem their own currency, and because they know it to be more reliable than their own issues. To one who has witnessed its popularity in the West, as well as the East, it is not surprising that $200,000,000 of this currency has been so readily absorbed, that $12,000,000 could not be obtained at the great commercial center a few days since, when required for government purposes. The legal tender currency, in spite of the speculations of gold in Wall-street and the high premium, (hereafter to suffer a decline as rapid as its advance, upon the triumph of our armies,) has been a success, and the people throughout the country, who are untrammelled by the influence of corporations and associations, desire that the remainder of the bank currency, whose average existence is less than the average life of a citizen, shall give place to a permanent government currency which shall be *safe, convertible, and uniform.*

Believing that the system already inaugurated is soon to be perfected, that our legislators will seek rather the good of the whole people than the interest of a few private corporations, and that the government is hereafter to control the currency as originally contemplated by the Constitution, we propose simply at present, to suggest a few of the practical details of the system, reserving other questions concerning a national currency, to which passing events have given a new interest, for future consideration.

1. The currency issued to the banks should be *safe.*

The plan of Secretary CHASE proposes to issue currency to parties only on the deposits of United States stocks. The parties by whom it is received are to be responsible for the currency issued to them; but it is not clear that the liability of the government is to extend beyond the value of the stocks. It is intended that the government shall control the issue, which shall be based on its own funds and at a rate to be fixed by itself.

It is said that the bonds of the United States, with its vast resources of every kind, are the best basis in the world for a currency. This we believe; and no matter how large the debt of the country may be at the close of the present rebellion, if the finances of the country are so managed that the interest on the debt is promptly paid, the bonds cannot depreciate largely in the money markets of the world. The government, by guaranteeing this currency, would merely reassert her intention at all hazards to provide the interest on her debt; and every argument that may be adduced to show her ability to meet promptly her liability, will serve only to strengthen the propriety of her guaranteeing the national currency. Such a guaranty would in fact only be a promise that the government, in

case of the failure of some corporation to whom she had issued notes, would purchase her own bonds at the rate fixed by herself. If the government should decline to guaranty such a currency, the issue of which she had assumed and controlled, it would seem to discredit its own funds. If, in addition to the security deposited, the government should insure the final redemption of all currency at par, no monetary crisis could ever shake the faith of the people in the notes. If a single bank should fail its currency would still pass from hand to hand, and there could hardly an instance occur in which the government, after having wound up the corporation, could be a loser. If losses should happen the abuses of the system would soon be corrected, and the increased faith of the people in the currency and the demand and appreciation of government stocks would much more than compensate for all such losses.

2. The currency issued to the banks should be *convertible*.

It is not sufficient that the government currency should be redeemed at the place of issue. Great abuses have already been the result of such laws. Remote points are sure to be selected as places of issue, and the discount upon bank notes becomes as varied as the currency itself. The great Eastern cities—New York, Boston, and Philadelphia—are the great centers of trade, and every bank and banker throughout the country always has funds on deposit at one of these points. The national currency should either be redeemed at one of those cities, or by agents at some one of the great cities of the country to be selected by the party issuing currency. The rate of redemption at the agency selected should be equal to the cost of transportation of bank notes from the place of the agency to the place of issue. This rate would vary from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ of one per cent discount, and should never exceed the last named amount. Thus the whole currency of the country would be so nearly of a uniform value that it would be received by every bank from Maine to Minnesota. Statements made weekly or monthly by the different agencies in the large cities, giving the amount on deposit with them by the country banks for the redemption of currency, would at all times indicate the solvency and ability of the banks of the country; and the increased amount of deposits in the great commercial cities would insure this influence and cooperation in the organization of the national system.

3. The currency should be *uniform*.

If any man has the curiosity, or will take the trouble to study the statistics contained in either of the quarto volumes which are weekly published in all the large cities under the name of "Counterfeit Detectors," he will find that there are in existence nearly sixteen hundred different banks, and that from these banks are daily being issued more than *ten thousand* different kinds of bank notes, and that a large portion of these issues have been frequently copied and put in circulation by the counterfeiter and his copartners in business.

We have to-day, in every loyal State with the exception of California and Oregon, a currency issued and encouraged by sanctions of law, more than forty different banking laws, depending on the judgment, caprice, or iniquity of the Legislatures of thirty-four different States, and which are changed or repealed as often as pliant and plastic legislators can be moved or moulded by the influence of monied institutions or corporations, until

now both the banker and the bill-holder require a library of bank statutes to give them information which ought, by its simplicity, to be at all times on the tongue's end of every business man.

A foreigner or a stranger traveling through the country, at the hotel, in the railroad car, on the river or lake, by friend and foe, has offered to him in exchange for gold, slips of engraved paper similar in size, but as often worthless in value, as equal the sum they represent and promise to pay. In Massachusetts and New York the inconvenience is comparatively trifling, for the bank currency is composed of the issues of New England and Middle States; but in the West the people have suffered for years from the issues of almost every State in the Union, much of which is so irredeemable, so insecure, and so unpopular as to be known by opprobrious names rather than the money it pretends to represent. There the frequently worthless issues of the State of Maine and of other New England States, the shinplasters of Michigan, the wildcats of Georgia, of Canada and Pennsylvania, the red-dogs of Indiana and Nebraska, the miserably engraved "rags" of North Carolina and Kentucky, Missouri and Virginia, and the not-soon-to-be-forgotten "stump-tail" of Illinois and Wisconsin, are mixed indiscriminately with the *par* currency of New York and Boston, until no one can wonder that the West has become disgusted with all bank issues, and almost unanimously demand that such a currency shall be taxed out of existence, and give place to a uniform national currency.

The Secretary of the Treasury proposes a remedy for these evils. He proposes to issue currency to the different banking institutions of the country; but with the exception of the name of the corporation, there is no reason why all the notes of the same denomination should not be precisely alike. In place of the ten thousand different bank notes now issued, with thousands of devices, serving only to bewilder the holder, under this system we should have but *ten* bank notes, each with a distinct character of its own, with its vignette and its minutest die and engraving so familiar and expressive that no one need ever be deceived.

4. If the currency is to be safe, convertible, and uniform it must be so engraved as to guard against counterfeits and fraudulent alterations.

The statistics with regard to the counterfeiting of bank notes, if it were possible to collect them, would be more astounding than anything contained in the census reports. These frauds have been practised extensively for years, giving occupation to hundreds of people whose profits have steadily increased with the business of the country and the issues of the banks. Private individuals and corporations have been defrauded of fortunes in a single day, and the losses to the people during the last fifty years from such frauds can only be computed by millions of dollars. The hindrances to the business of the country from the difficulty in the detection of the multitude of fraudulent bank notes of itself is a sufficient reason for a change in the present system. The people who might soon learn to detect a score of fraudulent issues, have long since despaired of the hope of detecting thousands of such issues, and a "good judge of money" is as necessary as a book-keeper to every mercantile house; however diminutive may be its business.

A law already passed gives the Secretary of the Treasary "the power to cause treasury notes to be engraved, printed and executed in such form as

he may prescribe, at the Treasury Department in Washington, and under his direction, and to purchase and provide all the machinery and materials, and to employ such persons and appoint such officers as may be necessary for this purpose."

If a national bank department shall be established the bank note will then hereafter be engraved as well as issued from the Treasury Department. The most perfect machinery will be procured, and the most skillful workmen will be employed, and the greatest care will be taken to issue a national currency in the highest style of the art, and having its own peculiar and distinctive characteristic. The government will, undoubtedly, like the Bank of England, procure the manufacture of a bank note paper for its own exclusive use, thus supplying itself with a simple preventive which has never been a characteristic of currency in this country, and which for so many years has baffled all efforts at imitation in England. The minutest lines of the engravers, as well as the water marks in the paper, may have their well understood or secret meaning, rendering the frauds of the counterfeiter and the coets of the photographer nearly impossible.

* The alteration of bank notes of late years has been the most successful fraud of the counterfeiter. The bank note engraver, with a wrecklessness which ought not to be excused, furnishes to corporations bank notes of high and low denominations almost precisely alike. In numerous instances using the same die and vignette indiscriminately for the small denominations of one note, and for the large denomination of others, the engraver has destroyed much of the aid associations might have furnished in the detection of fraudulent alterations. The counterfeiter henceforth discards the costly and cumbrous machinery of the engraver. With only a pair of scissors, a few easily attained chemical substances, and a fine quality of glue, with nimble fingers, and clipping at pleasure, he transfers from one bank bill to another the die, the word, and the figure which indicate the denomination, thus in a few hours changing many an insignificant one or two to tens and fifties. Not only is the prominent die that denotes the denomination entirely abstracted and a new one replaced, but even the fine lettering of the border and the center with equal facility are exchanged. If the engraver stamps in large letters the denomination on the face of the notes, these letters are entirely obliterated from one set of notes and furnished to another not provided with the preventive. Black ink, red ink, green ink, large letters and figures, borders and stripes, although at first of good service, in the end seem rather to facilitate than to retard those unlawful practices.

Of the legal tender notes recently engraved for the Treasury Department, the chief vignettes of the one, the two, the fifty, the one hundred, and the one thousand dollar notes are each portraits similar in size and appearance, and the vignette of the two and the one hundred is the American eagle. The vignette of the two and the fifty is the same portrait of Alexander Hamilton, and the general appearance of the two notes is almost precisely alike, and alterations of these notes have already been announced.

To prevent such alterations, there exists a remedy simple, effective, and

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* For a former article on this subject see *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1853.

feasible, which we should be glad to see tested by the government in the first issue from the National Department. The bank teller detects the worst alterations from association, and if the chief engraving of a note is well remembered he will not be deceived. If, for instance, the vignette of the one dollar note is known *always* to be an engraving of the Monitor, the first glance at the engraving will convey to the mind its value, let the *apparent* denomination be what it may. In engraving a set or series of bank notes, the vignette and every engraving on the *one* dollar note should uniformly consist of *one* and only one prominent object, and the two, three, and five, in like manner, always of *two*, *three*, and *five* prominent objects, and no matter what these objects may be, if they are *always* uniform in bills of the same denomination, the poorest judge of money cannot be deceived with regard to their value. The portraits of the first five Presidents or Secretaries of the Treasury, of five gold dollars, and hundreds of other devices, may be so designed as to beautify the national bank note, and at the same time to indicate the denomination.

As the eagle is the sobriquet, the *nom de plume* of the ten dollar gold coin, an engraving of an American eagle should *always* represent the ten dollar note, and a device of a double-eagle should represent the twenty, while larger designs of public buildings or from historical paintings should *always* be found upon the notes of larger denominations. The border of the one dollar note should be narrow and its designs small, while those of the two, three, five, ten, and twenty should gradually increase in size, that for the fifty cover one-half of the length of the bill, and that of the thousand dollar note cover its whole extent; and every engraving, whether large or small, at the end or upon the border should indicate the denomination, until to alter a note will be to deface its whole appearance. With beautiful designs, thus gradually increasing in size, the engraver may produce a new series of bank notes, and by association hereafter prevent all alterations.

The first uprooting of the present system of the issue of bank notes by the different State Legislatures, and the establishment of the national system at Washington, which shall include the uniformity, the safety, and the convertibility of all currency, together with the certainty that hereafter the amount shall not exceed the debt of the general government, will form a new era in the history of the country. The blood which circulates through the whole system of finance will be comparatively pure; the machinery of business now retarded by friction, will buzz as under the influence of the most perfect system of lubrucation, and by its increased facilities, a large part of the cost of the present rebellion will be returned to the people during the next half century.

The fact that one-half of the currency of the Union is now discredited, that the present exigency and needs of the government will justify the taxation of all bank notes now in circulation, and that the people in the midst of the derangements of the times are more than ever anxious for a change, make the present the time when the Congress of the United States should place under the control of the government, the issue of all bills of credit, as was originally contemplated by the Constitution.

THE CURRENCY.

BY A. W. STETSON.

"THE currency" is a subject of vast importance; but, woven and interwoven as it is, into the whole fabric of social organization and life; its alluring prospects, tempting offers, and seductive charms, often beguile the unwary, while its varied and complicated effects insiduously lead reflective minds to form erroneous opinions in reference to it.

There are, however, some facts relative to paper currency which are well established by past experience. 1st. History records the fact that paper money has been tried in almost every country, and has in every instance and everywhere produced mischief. 2d. That neither State nor Bank has ever had the unrestricted power of issuing paper money without abusing that power. 3d. That no authority, however absolute, can ever succeed in fixing the general ratio of value. 4th. That the expansion of the volume of a national money, whether of metal or paper, is sure to be followed by a dilution of its value. Yet, notwithstanding these generally admitted truths, the issue of paper money by government in emergencies is absolntely indispensable and justifiable to prevent much more disastrous results, provided it is placed under proper restrictions and limitations.

Our able Secretary of the Treasury, under the force of circumstances beyond his control, was obliged to recommend and to issue paper money to a limited amount; but now, as is evident from the whole tenor of his report, sagaciously discerning the disastrous tendency of a further issue, wisely recommends a resort to other methods for raising a loan. Secretary CHASE says, clearly and emphatically, that "a further issue would be as injurious as it would be easy;" the addition of so vast a volume to the existing circulation would convert the currency into a positive calamity. Its consequences would be a large diminution of exports, inflation of prices, increase of expenditures, augmentation of debt, and ultimately disastrous defeat of the very purposes sought to be attained by it."

Never were more truthful words uttered, or words more worthy of the thoughtful consideration of the American Congress. Nothing is more essential to the welfare and prosperity of any country than a well regulated and uniform volume of currency. Let the currency be disturbed by inflation or diminution, and a violent dislocation of money prices, of stocks and commodities will inevitably occur. The whole fabric of society is shattered, and people's ideas of value become confused and deranged, whereby knavery obtains advantage over honest simplicity, the debtor over the creditor, and the rich over the poor. When we say paper money is depreciated, what do we mean?

As I understand it, we mean it has fallen in real value, from a fair and nearly uniform standard of value.

The acknowledged standard, the world over, is a metallic currency, not only because of its intrinsic worth, but because of its uniform and almost invariable value as compared with any other commodity. How is it with

paper? It has no inherent value, and is only worth the amount of that commodity for which it is exchangeable. No one will pretend that any legal enactment can make a piece of paper worth a dollar. The Continental dollar always passed for a dollar for the first issue, until it took one thousand to buy one of gold. So that however great may be its depreciation, an intangible standard of value never changes its name.

Now, as a paper dollar is only a nominal dollar, so long as it is the legal tender and currency of the country, it must and will *pass* for a nominal dollar; therefore, if we wish to ascertain the fair estimate of its value, we must calculate it by the value of the articles which we can exchange for it, or in comparison with gold and silver, the universally conceded standard of value.

Before entering upon the subject of depreciation, I desire to say that I am not one of those who would depreciate the currency from any personal, political, or theoretical motives; but, as a firm friend and supporter of the government, confident in its stability and eventual ability to meet all its obligations, I wish to express my convictions relative to the currency, in order to elicit the precise truth, and bring out the facts prominently before the public. If, owing to the present issues of paper, the currency has been inflated and consequently depreciated, the people ought to know it, even if it *should* affect their national pride. It is vastly better to admit the fact of depreciation, if it be so, than be deceived ourselves, and attempt to deceive others; for, instead of hugging the delusive phantom of legal fiction, admiring the beautiful proportions of the magnificent bubble, and crying for more, we should then promptly and cordially sustain our sagacious Secretary in his endeavor to prevent the larger issue of paper money by the government, and frown upon all legislative action which would interfere with, and destroy the monetary equilibrium.

That the depreciation of paper is, as many assert, *wholly* owing to the inflation of the currency by the over issue of legal tender notes, I deny; but that a large portion of it arises from that cause, I fully believe.

The Hon. Secretary in his able report, labors to prove that the currency has not been much inflated, in consequence of the demonetizing of gold; but his figures do not justify his conclusions.

For instance, he makes the increase in the volume of the currency, after deducting the gold, about $22,000,000. Whereas, if we include the increase of bank deposits, which constitute a part of the currency, and which, as the Secretary says, answer very many of the purposes of circulation, we have an increase of the currency, amounting to $102,000,000, viz.:

	1861.	1862.
Circulation.....	$130,000,000	$167,000,000.
United States currency.	15,140,000	210,104,000.
Specie	210,000,000	210,000,000.
Deposits.....	264,000,000	344,000,000.
	$619,140,000	$931,104,000.
Deduct specie.....		210,000,000.
		$721,104,000.

Showing and increase in the volume of the currency of 16½ per cent, which in connection with other causes, viz.: the fear of further issues, and the lack of confidence in the power and stability of the government to fulfil its contracts, have operated silently, but forcibly, in causing the gradual depreciation of paper, and consequent rise of gold.

Our currency may be compared to a sea of values which has no outlet, excepting that which may be formed hereafter by public confidence in funding it into 5-20 United States bonds; consequently the more that flows into it, the *higher* prices will rise, on all values, until the equilibrium is restored, and the prices of all commodities are brought to the new level.

I maintain that this inflation acts quite uniformly on the prices of all commodities or values, entirely irrespective of, yet in conjunction with the law of supply and demand. For instance: take the two articles of cotton and pork. The law of supply and demand has operated upon these articles conversely. Cotton has advanced from ten to sixty-eight cents per pound, while pork has declined to $2 50 per barrel.

Now, I hold that the depreciation of the currency is represented not only in the enhanced price of cotton, but also in the present price of pork. For in consequence of the immense supply of pork, and the very limited demand—arising from the Southern market being cut off, and other causes—the price of pork would have been much lower than it now is, had it not been upheld by the depreciation of a paper currency—and cotton instead of selling at 68 cents, would be selling at about 50 cents.

Let us see: We are a producing country—cotton, wheat, flour, corn, and pork are among our exports. Yet, notwithstanding this fact, these commodities are relatively 30 per cent higher *here* than in England. That is to say—a laboring man in England can buy our production very much cheaper than we can—simply because our legal dollar is a depreciated dollar, and passes nominally for more than its relative worth. When we approach the real truth, we shall perceive that these productions move out of the country at their *real* value, and not at their *fictitious* value, as measured by an inflated or depreciated currency. What that depreciation is, cannot be accurately stated, because the depreciation is not fixed and permanent in its character, but liable to fluctuation from various causes. I am of the opinion, however, that although the premium on gold may not measure the exact depreciation of the currency, it will be found to bear a close approximation to it.

It is said that gold is demonetized, and is become an article of merchandise, subject to the ordinary fluctuation of supply and demand, speculation, &c. If this assumption is strictly true, why is it that the rise and fall of the premium on gold invariably affects the price of all our exports and imports?

As far as I am informed, no one article of merchandise can, or does produce that effect upon every other—therefore I think the assumption false.

How does depreciation affect our imports? Coffee, tea, molasses, sugar, spices, fruits, and hides—which enter into ordinary consumption—are not only subject to an additional duty, which is cheerfully paid, but in addition to that, consumers are obliged to pay the full premium on gold—the most, if not all of which is the actual depreciation of the currency.

This depreciation is not exhibited in the prices of commodities alone, for if we take up the stock list, we shall find the same reality there.

For instance: It will be noticed that government stocks have held at about par, while the prices of nearly every other tangible security have been greatly enhanced.

Hence, we see that government stocks have *virtually* depreciated, otherwise they would have advanced *pro rata* with other prime securities.

The government paper dollar, legalized, will pass, of course, for a nominal dollar; but when exchanged for any commodity, its actual or real value comes into consideration, and *not* its legal character; therefore, if we are obliged to pay a larger price for any value in consequence of its legal character, that amount is really the amount which paper has depreciated.

Gold has its intrinsic worth, and no more; any premium which buys it is therefore properly chargeable to the depreciation of paper at the time of the transaction.

The variability and fluctuation of the value of our currency is owing, in a measure, to the same causes which affect the government stocks; and when confidence is fully restored, the immediate effect would be the funding of legal tender, a decline in the premium on gold, a rise in government stocks, and a general fall in the prices of all stocks and commodities. Then we shall have a return to a sound, healthy, and permanent circulating medium, which is of such immense advantage to society. Now, it is the duty of all to strengthen the finances of the government by every means in their power, and to oppose strenuously any further issue of legal tender notes, which have the tendency to create confusion, disorder, and disaster.

THE ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH AND THE WESTERN COAST OF IRELAND.

REPORT ON THE DEEP SEA SOUNDINGS TO THE WESTWARD OF IRELAND—MADE IN H. M. S. "PORCUPINE," IN JUNE, JULY, AND AUGUST, 1862.

In the October number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we refered to the fact that the British steamer Porcupine, (sent out to take a new line of soundings along the Irish coast in the route of the great Atlantic cable,) had returned to Plymouth. We now have the following report as the result of its labors. Although the soundings are not numerous, yet it is thought they are sufficiently so to set at rest the imagined difficulty of the precipitous character of the approaches from the sea bed to the western coast of Ireland, and to prove therefore, that a cable may be laid there so as to gain the deep bed of the Atlantic by an easy descent:

BELFAST, *September 30th*, 1862.

SIR: The Atlantic Submarine Telegraph Company having requested the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty to have some deep soundings taken off the western coast of Ireland, principally to ascertain whether the apparent sudden dip in the soundings from 550 to 1,750 fathoms, found by Commander DAYMAN in the year 1857, in the parallel of 52° 15′ N., extends further north or south, and to endeavor to seek out a more gradual slope into the bed of the ocean, their lordships were pleased to direct that the Porcupine, then fitting at Devonport for the survey of the North Sea, should be dispatched on this service.

The Porcupine is a paddle steamer of 130 horse-power and 380 tons. She was manned by a crew of forty-nine officers and men, and was fitted with a donkey engine for heaving in the line; also with five light iron reels, three large for the deep sea line, and two small for cod line, capable of holding 2,000 fathoms of line each. From these reels the line was run off when sounding, and reeled on them by hand, as it was hove in by the donkey engine. The Porcupine was also supplied at Devonport with 10,000 fathoms of the ordinary deep sea line and 13,000 fathoms of cod line, made expressly for deep sea soundings, with an ample supply of sinkers and weights, and the Bulldog and other apparatus for bringing up the bottom; JOHNSON'S and HEARDER'S pressure gauges, to show the depth, were also supplied, as well as metallic and ordinary deep sea thermometers to test the temperature. At Galway a further supply of 10,000 fathoms of Messrs. NEWALL'S cod line was received on board, besides 11,500 fathoms of a smaller and less expensive line. The weight per 1,000 fathoms, with the breaking strain of these sounding lines, was as follows:

Lines.	Fathoms.	Weight. lbs.	Breaking strain. cwt.	lbs.
Ordinary deep sea	1,000	230	6	63
Newall's cod	1,000	56	3	14
Laid twine	1,000	17½	0	100
Marline	1,000	29	0	100
Mackerel	1,000	26	0	100

The lines were marked in the usual way, viz., blue at 50 fathoms, white at 100 fathoms, and red at 1,000 fathoms.

The soundings were always taken from the bow of the vessel. With the main and mizen sheets out we had no difficulty in keeping her head to wind; and an occasional easy turn ahead sufficed to keep her bow directly over the descending lead.

The principle of using a small line and heavy weight for obtaining the depth was that adopted. I believe it to be the only means at present known for obtaining the true depth.

When using a heavy line, such as the ordinary deep sea line, the difference of interval after the weight strikes the bottom is not sufficiently marked to enable one to say confidently when it is down, particularly should there be any sea, and none of the instruments we were supplied with, whether of rotatory character, like WALKER'S, or those depending on compression, as JOHNSON'S and HEARDER'S pressure guages, give any results that can be at all relied on.

The cod line supplied by Messrs. NEWALL, of Gateshead, is an admirable line for this purpose. The weight was sometimes brought up by it from great depths. On one occasion it raised a 64 pound weight from a depth of 1,750 fathoms; but as the whole quantity out is frequently sacrificed at each sounding, the expense becomes a serious consideration when the soundings are required near each other; and I found the lighter and much less expensive lines answer equally well in smooth water, where the depth of water alone was required.

The strongest line we had for bringing up a specimen of the bottom, with the instruments for testing the temperature and pressure, was the ordinary deep sea line. If, as it sometimes happens, the weight does not detach itself, this line would prove unequal to the strain, and at some sudden heave of the sea would break away, losing all our instruments.

The simplicity, cheapness, and certainty of action of the cup lead, of from 56 pounds to 75 pounds weight, renders it an invaluable instrument in depths under a thousand fathoms, bringing up a good wine glass full of the bottom at each cast. It may be used either with the cod or ordinary deep sea line. In greater depths when a specimen of the bottom was required, we used the Bulldog machine.

To save time, the two operations of determining the depth by a small line, and sending down the instruments for scientific purposes, were carried out together, an officer being stationed at each line to time the marks in their passage over the gunwale. A deep sounding, when the instruments were to be recovered, would occupy from two to four hours.

Having made these preliminary observations, I may now proceed with the progress of the voyage.

Having swung ship for compass deviation, I sailed from Plymouth Sound on the 22d of June, and on the 24th commenced our examinations, in pursuance of your orders, at the 100 fathoms line on the 51st parallel of latitude. The deep water valley crossed by Commander DAYMAN ninety miles west of Valentia, was found to extend to this parallel, as we had 1,180 fathoms in its deepest part, and 375 fathoms on the bank outside it. From the depth of 1,000 fathoms in this depression, the Bulldog machine brought up a bivalve shell embedded in the soft clay.

On crossing the bank to the westward, we passed from a depth of 710 fathoms to 1,550 fathoms in a distance of seven miles. Although this

increase of depth seems so great, if the incline is gradual, of which we have no evidence to the contrary, it amounts to but 12 feet of dip in 100 feet horizontal, or about 1 in 8.

To the westward of this we dropped our lead on the position of a reported vigia (the Brazil Rock) and obtained 2,350 fathoms, and here the deep sea line being unequal to the strain broke, taking with it all our instruments attached.

With reference to this and other vigias in this part of the ocean, I may observe that we frequently passed balks of timber, covered with barnacles and sea weed, having somewhat the appearance of a rock awash.

Carrying out the system of sounding laid down for me in your orders, in the parallel of 51° 35′ we passed from 1,440 to 930 fathoms in a distance of 2.7 miles, or a little under 19 feet of dip to 100 feet horizontal, and this is the steepest incline we have met with.

The unsettled weather we experienced frequently interrupted our work, and on the 8th of July, having expended our coals, I ran into Galway to replenish, and obtain a fresh rate for our chronometers.

We were detained here by continual gales until the 21st, when the weather moderating we again sailed, carrying out a line of soundings with us; but had scarcely arrived on our ground, when the weather became more severe than ever, and on the morning of the 24th, while lying-to in a heavy gale, we had the misfortune to twist our rudder-head off. This compelled us to return to Galway for repairs, and in the absence of the proper means for effecting them, we were delayed there until the 6th of August. During this time and indeed throughout the whole of our cruize, the weather was very unsettled, occasioning a great loss of time.

On the 8th of August we were enabled to sail from Cashell Bay, where, on leaving Galway, I had gone for shelter. Carrying out a line of soundings on the parallel of Slyne Head, at the distance of 120 miles to the westward of it, we crossed the tail of a bank of 82 fathoms, coarse gravel. This being entirely new, I have named it the Porcupine Bank. It will be of use to vessels bound to Galway from the westward as a means of ascertaining their position by the lead. The bottom both to the northward and southward is deeper, being composed of fine dark sand, while the bank is composed of gravel and coarse sand.

August 10*th*, in latitude 53° 30′, longitude 15°, found the current from a boat moored to the bottom S. E. ½ S. 0.5 knot, which agrees with that shown by our reckoning for the last two days. Numerous pipe fish, some with ova attached, were swimming on the surface; some of these were preserved.

August 11*th*.—Our soundings this day taught us that in the parallel of 54° 10′, the Irish Bank does not extend so far to the westward, and that Rockal is probably a separate bank.

August 12*th*.—Weather again unsettled, with a heavy sea. Having determined the N. W. limit of the Irish Bank, bore away towards the tail of the Rockal Bank, sounding at intervals in from 1,500 to 1,200 fathoms, shoaling as we approached the Rockal Bank.

August 14*th*.—At noon observed Rockal with several fishing vessels near it. There being too much sea to do anything in the vicinity of the rocks, hove to for the night.

August 15*th*.—Got observations for latitude and longitude; found the current setting with flood tide N. by E. 0.8 knot. The weather having

become fine with only a moderate swell, sent a boat with a party to land on the rock; but the sea broke so heavily round it that the officer in command thought it would be imprudent for them to do so. One of the party, Mr. JOHNS, the boatswain, succeeded in getting a footing, but not at the part where the summit is accessible.

The fishery is in the vicinity of the rock; but this very remarkable peak of a submarine mountain standing, as it does, in solitary grandeur above the ocean surface, is not unworthy of some attention in this report.

Rockal is in latitude 57° 35′ 53″ N. by meridian altitude of sun; longitude 13° 42′ 21″ W., mean of A. M. and P. M. sights, four chronometers, sea horizon. The rock has an elevation of 70 feet above the sea, is about 250 feet in circumference at its base, and is composed of a coarse granite.*

The summit of the rock, sharp pointed and whitened by birds, can only be gained from its N. E. side, and landing is at all times difficult, for it is steep on all sides. On the N. E. side, however, is a small detached rock, called Haslewood Rock, uncovered at half tide, with 30 fathoms of water between it and Rockal, from which it bears N. E. by N. a cable and a half distant.

Helen Reef, bearing S. 79° E. two miles from Rockal, has about 6 feet water over it at low water. It is so called from a vessel of that name that was wrecked on it, and is very dangerous. The situation of it is generally shown by its breakers, but towards high water and in very fine weather, it only breaks at long intervals. From being small and steep to, there is then nothing to indicate the approach to it. To avoid it keep Rockal clear of a W. by N. bearing. There is a safe passage between it and the rock.

The lowest estimate that was formed of the range of the tide, (judging from the appearance of the rock,) was 6 feet; but this seems large for a tide wave in mid ocean. PURDY'S *Atlantic Memoir* presumes to discredit the existence of any danger near Rockal, but is mistaken.

From Rockal we steered for the Irish coast. When nearly midway between it and the Irish Bank, we obtained one sounding of 1,660 fathoms, and found the current here from a boat moored to the bottom S.E. by E. ½ E., one knot.

From the edge of the Irish Bank I carried a line of soundings into Enis Head, and then proceeded to Valentia for coals. On receiving which, having carried out my instructions and effected the object of our cruise, I returned to Cork for further orders, getting a few soundings by the way.

In the course of our observations we found the donkey steam engine and the light iron reels for running the line off very serviceable, indeed indispensably necessary to our success. The Bulldog machine fully answered the purpose of bringing up a large quantity of the bottom, but we could not always get the weight to detach. On one occasion, too much line having been paid out, the bight got between the jaws of the nipper and prevented its closing; this lost us our specimen, but it affords another illustration of the line going straight down on the weight, and the consequent absence of any under current.

In carrying out this service I received every assistance from the officers

* Specimens have been sent to various museums in Ireland.

on board, who all united their best endeavors to bring our cruise to a successful termination.

With reference to the principal object of our inquiry, that of finding a more gradual slope into the bed of the ocean, I consider that our soundings clearly prove that the general dip of the bank presents no difficulty whatever to laying a cable either from Valentia or Loop Head, or any other part of the west coast of Ireland between Bantry and Blacksod Bays, that may offer facilities for securely landing and working it.

Much pains were taken by sounding at short intervals to discover if anything like a precipice existed. Our steepest incline shows a difference of level of 3,060 feet in 2.7 miles, or about 19 feet in 100 feet. On the parallel of 51° 20′ we have a dip of 7,680 feet in a distance of fourteen miles. The intermediate soundings give no evidence of a precipice; but a mountain of this height on the land would present an imposing appearance, with perhaps some steep escarpments.

On the adjacent coast of Ireland we have precipices of 2,000 feet in height within half a mile of the shore. However these may have been caused, whether by the continued action of the Atlantic waves at their base, or by the erosive power of glacial or atmospheric agencies operating on their slopes, it is certain that the submarine mountains are not exposed to this action, or to any denuding process whatever. But it is more probable that any inequalities in them arising from original formation have been filled up by the gentle depositions of the soft clay that we found everywhere covering their slopes.

On examining the soundings the slope will be found to vary from 6 to 19 feet dip in 100 feet horizontal, a dip that cannot possibly strain or injure the cable. The knowledge of this fact will, I trust, remove one of the supposed difficulties in the way of laying it, and help to forward the successful realization of this great national undertaking.

I am, &c.,

R. Hoskyn, *Master and Surveyor.*

Rear-Admiral Washington, F.R.S., &c., *Hydrographer.*

ABSTRACT OF THE EXPERIMENTS MADE WITH THE PRESSURE GAUGES AND DEEP SEA THERMOMETERS FROM THE SOUNDING LOG.

June 25th.—In 1,000 fathoms water.
Board of Trade min. ther., No. 49, registered 44°.
Johnson's metallic ther., No. 8, 37°.
Johnson's pressure gauge, did not act, the stopper had not moved.
Hearder's pressure gauge, all the mercury ran out of the legs into the tube, probably from its having capsized on the bottom.

June 27th.—In 2,350 fathoms.
Board of Trade min. ther., lost by line carried away.
Johnson's metallic ther., lost by line carrying away.

July 22d.—In 200 fathoms.
Johnson's pressure gauge, did not act.
Board of Trade min. ther., registered 54°.

Johnson's metallic ther., No. 9, 49°.
Board of Trade min. ther., 50.5°.
Johnson's metallic ther., No. 9, 48.5°.

August 10*th*.—In 540 fathoms.
Hearder's pressure gauge, the mercury was all disjointed, some in outer tube, no result.
In 820 fathoms.
Hearder's pressure gauge, lost by line parting.
In 1,500 fathoms.
Board of Trade ther., No. 18, registered 59°.
In 1,550 fathoms.
Johnson's metallic ther., No. 9, 31°.

August 11*th*.—In 1,540 fathoms.
Hearder's pressure gauge, No. 2, on coming up the short leg registered 750 fathoms; the long leg was full; in a few minutes after coming up the short leg fell to 1,000 fathoms.

August 12*th*.—In 690 fathoms.
Hearder's pressure gauge, No. 2, on coming up the short leg registered 1,200 fathoms; the long leg was full: shortly afterwards the short leg registered 1,425 fathoms.

August 16*th*.—In 1,600 fathoms.
Board of Trade ther., No. 18, 51°.

August 29*th*.—In 400 fathoms.
Johnson's pressure gauges, Nos. 1 and 2, did not act.
Repeated the experiment—they did not act.
Hearder's pressure gauge, short leg registered 950 fathoms, long leg, 300 fathoms.

Every injunction of the inventors for using these instruments was strictly complied with by Mr. Davis, who took great pains to secure their efficient working.

Johnson's metallic thermometer appears to give good results.

I think the reading of the Board of Trade thermometer is sometimes vitiated by the index not retaining its position.

Johnson's pressure gauge never seemed to be in the slightest degree affected by pressure. Is it not possible that the water may pass freely round the cork without moving it? If the plug is forced into the tube with the finger, instead of compressing the water passes it.

Hearder's pressure gauge is of no practical use in its present form. The liability to fall on its side on the bottom, will always interfere with its results.

R. Hoskyn.

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In all cases in the following soundings the bottom was found and the depth fairly measured; but where the line parted in coming up, the sounding being lost, the character of the bottom could not be ascertained.

Date.	Latitude. ° ′	Longitude. ° ′	Depth. Fathoms.	Nature of soundings.
June 25,	50 44.5	11 36.5	900	Drab colored sandy mud.
"	50 55	11 52	980	Stiff sandy clay.
"	50 56	12 6	1000	Stiff sandy clay.
"	50 57	12 20	1080	Sandy clay.
"	50 58	12 40	1120	Line broke from strain, 1050 fms.
"	50 59	13 0	1180	Sandy clay.
"	51 0	13 22	1175	Sandy clay.
26,	50 59	13 30	930	Sandy clay.
"	51 3	14 46	510	No indication.
"	51 4	15 6	710	Sp. sand.
"	51 4	15 19	1550	Line parted—no bottom found.
27,	50 56	15 21	1900	Line parted at 1,000 fathoms.
"	51 9	15 59	2350	On site of Brazil Rock—a good up & down sound'g—lost at 2,250 f.
"	51 19	15 32	2050	Line parted at 1,900 fathoms.
"	51 19	15 15	1750	Good up & d. snd'g—lost at 1,000 f.
28,	51 25	15 15	1550	No indication.
"	51 35	15 19	1440	Clay.
July 2,	51 52	15 22	1200	Line parted at 1,000 fathoms.
"	51 51	15 21	1250	Line parted at 1,150 fathoms.
"	51 50.5	15 31	1450	Sandy clay—snd'g unsatisfactory.
3,	51 57.5	15 17	1250	Parted at 1,000 fathoms.
"	52 8	15 30	1240	Sandy clay.
6,	52 21	15 31	1570	Sandy clay.
"	52 18	15 15	710	Sandy clay.
"	52 19	15 2.5	570	Sand.
23,	52 58	15 8	1050	Line parted.
"	52 58	15 20	1470	Sandy clay.
Aug. 10,	53 22.5	14 45	820	Line parted at 700 fathoms.
"	53 22	15 0	1500	Sandy clay.
"	53 40	15 4	1550	Sandy clay and stones embedded. Greenstone & basalt ang. ½ in. sq.
"	53 40	14 47	1300	
11,	53 39	14 46	1220	Line got into nippers.
"	53 53.5	14 14	900	Muddy sand—parted at 800 fms.
"	53 59	14 25	1540	Sandy clay & stones—lost at 1400 f.
"	54 0.5	13 58	1120	Sdy cly. Bank recedes E. Rockal is probably on a separate bank.
12,	54 8	13 25	1350	Sandy clay.
"	54 6	12 50	690	Sandy clay.
"	54 16	13 6	1580	No specimen—line parted.
"	54 39	13 44	1500	Line parted at 1,400 fathoms.
13,	55 14	14 42	1300	Line parted at 1,280 fathoms.
"	55 33	14 40	1220	Line parted at 1,050 fathoms.
"	55 53	14 38	800	Sandy clay.
16,	55 31	12 11	1660	Mud.
17,	54 20	12 44	840	No specimen.
"	54 20	12 23	1380	Drab colored sandy mud.
"	54 20	12 7	980	Sandy clay.
28,	52 40	15 38	1750	Sandy clay.
"	52 45	15 15	1120	Sand and shells.

ENLARGEMENT OF THE ILLINOIS AND MICHIGAN CANAL.

BY J. D WEBSTER.

JACKSON, TENN., *November* 28, 1862.

To the Hon. Secretary of War, Washington, D. C.:

SIR: I have the honor to report that, in compliance with the request of the President of the United States and the Hon. I. N. ARNOLD, of the House of Representatives, and under leave granted by the War Department for that purpose, I have made such inquiries and examination as my time permitted, in relation to the practicability, cost, and military and commercial advantages of opening a passage for gunboats and armed vessels from the Mississippi to the lakes, by improving the navigation of the Illinois River and enlargement of the Illinois and Michigan Canal.

Knowing that the subject had been previously discussed, in able and eloquent speeches and reports, and that plans and estimates had been submitted to Congress, I thought it best, in the first place, to examine the estimates, and ascertain upon what evidence they were founded.

The authors of these plans and the estimates, Messrs. WILLIAM GOODING and JOHN B. PRESTON, are respectively the Secretary and Engineer of the Illinois and Michigan Canal; and in the office of that work, at Lockport, Illinois, I found the data which they had used, an examination of which, with full information as to their sources and preparation, satisfied me that, for the purposes of their report, no further surveys were necessary.

The work naturally divides itself into three portions, and, taking the order in which they were presented to me, the first of these divisions is the Illinois River from its mouth to La Salle, the terminus of the present canal.

The survey of this portion was made by competent engineers, under instructions of the above named gentlemen and by authority of the State of Illinois. The maps and profiles have every mark of care and skill, and the surveys were made under circumstances to secure the greatest accuracy. This survey is the foundation of the plans and estimates for the improvement.

The mode proposed, (and obviously the proper one, I think,) is by dams and locks. The whole distance is 220 miles, and the fall a little less than twenty-eight feet, or an average of one and-a-half inches per mile. Seven dams and locks are proposed. Fewer than these might be made to answer the purpose, but by adopting this number, the water can be raised throughout this entire distance to the required height of affording a channel capable of passing steamboats and vessels drawing six feet without overflowing any valuable lands. Greater strength and security can also be more readily given to the dams, as they will be of less height, than would be necessary with a smaller number. The effect upon the river will be to keep its bed always *covered* for its full width, instead of being as now, alternately covered and exposed. While the occasional overflowing of the contiguous low lands will hardly be increased to a perceptible degree. It is not anticipated that this state of things will be injurious to the health of the adjacent country. On the contrary, it is thought that this constant fullness of the bed of the

river will be beneficial, in that respect, and that the fears, which have been entertained in some quarters, of ill effects will not be realized.

The second of the divisions in the ascending order is that part of the Illinois River between La Salle and Lockport.

This has not been surveyed with reference to the proposed work. Its general character and average width are, however, well known. The lockage is precisely given by the present cause, which runs nearly parallel with, and not far from the river. So that we have data sufficiently full and accurate for arriving at a very close approximation to the cost of the improvement. A survey will be necessary to determine the location of the dams and locks, and the precise quantities of masonry. But this cannot materially vary the aggregate of the calculations already made.

We come now to the third division extending from Lockport to Chicago. There it is proposed to follow the line of the present canal, enlarging it to the dimensions of a ship and steamboat canal, 160 feet wide, and 7 feet deep. The original surveys for the existing canal appear to have been made with minuteness and accuracy, and are yet available for estimates of the cost of the proposed enlargement. There are, however, a few points upon which there may be some liability to error.

Most of the material excavated from the present canal yet remain on its banks. Of course that lying on the side toward which the enlargement is to be made must be removed. It has been assumed in estimating that this material was deposited one-half on each side. This may prove not strictly true.

Again, the amounts of the different kinds of material to be excavated for the enlargement, are not known with absolute exactness. But the estimate, in this particular, are based upon careful notes, taken during the progress of the work on the present canal, and the particular observations of one of the gentlemen named above, and are probably very near the truth.

It is not determined what quantity of earthy sediment may have settled in that portion of the canal which was originally executed upon the deep cut plan. Whatever it may be, it is of a character to be readily and cheaply removed by the improved machinery now in use for such purposes.

These qualifications of the exact correctness of the estimates are not, in my view, of much importance, but I thought it better to mention them in order to make as plain an exhibit as possible of the grounds upon which they are based.

I have no doubt that in the main these estimates are reliable; much beyond what is usual in similar cases. Care has been taken in regard to the points on which there may be some doubt, to err, if at all, on the safe side. Messrs. GOODING and PRESTON have been for years deeply interested in this subject, and have studied it carefully. They have all the advantages of a minute acquaintance with the localities in question, and great experience in construction on this very ground. They are well known as engineers of acknowledged skill and ability, while their character for integrity, puts them above the suspicion of willingly misrepresenting in any particular.

Having them, (those plans and estimates,) I am well satisfied that we have before us the means of forming a correct judgment of the "practicability and cost" of the proposed work.

I therefore append hereto the estimate submitted to Congress by the committee on military affairs of the House of Representatives in their report

of the 20th of February last. I am fully of opinion that the plan is judicious and the estimates reliable. Perhaps some addition ought to be made on account of the high prices of labor and supplies likely to rule for some time to come—the rates on which the estimates were made being those of the past year.

The estimate of thirteen millions three hundred and forty-six thousand eight hundred and twenty-four dollars ($13,346,824) may be fairly regarded as the pecuniary measure of the practicability of the work, executed on the plan, cutting down the summit level of the canal so as to draw the needed supply of water directly from Lake Michigan, and maintain a uniform width of 160 feet.

Two other plans have been proposed and estimated for. The first is to make the canal 100 feet wide, with recesses on each mile 160 feet wide, to enable steamers to pass. The estimate for this is eleven millions five hundred thousand dollars, ($11,500,000.)

The other plan is to make the canal 160 feet wide, but omit cutting down the summit, and supply the water from the Calumet, Des Plains, and DuPage rivers—any deficiency (which is almost sure to exist some portion of every season) to be supplied by pumping engines and wheels from Lake Michigan. For this the estimate is nine millions two hundred and ninety-two thousand four hundred and forty-four dollars ($9,292,444.) The difference of cost in these plans arises from the different modes proposed of constructing the enlarged canal, the river improvement remaining the same in all.

The saving effected by adopting any other plan than that of cutting down the summit to the whole depth proposed, seems so unimportant compared to the magnitude and importance of the work, and the mode on the most liberal scale proposed so much superior on all accounts, that I omit the detailed estimates for the others. I earnestly hope that, if the government should determine to execute, or even to aid the work, the largest scale proposed may be sanctioned. Anything less than that would mar the fair proportions which should throughout characterize so important an improvement.

Pumping to supply the summit level is but an expedient, subject to the constant expense and liability to derangement of the machinery by which it is effected; while to pour directly into this great channel the abundant waters of the lakes will make a vital union, instead of an uncertain artificial connection between the two great systems of internal navigation.

The great military advantages, not to say absolute necessity of a communication between the Mississippi and the lakes will appear from a very cursory consideration of the subject. A foreign power holds in its grasp means of access for a fleet of light draft gunboats to the lakes. We have but one small armed vessel, and the Detroit River and Straits of Mackinaw are almost entirely undefended by fortification. Who can compute the amount of disaster and injury which might any day befall our lake commerce and cities in case of war with that power? How many months of time, and how many millions of dollars would it require to build and equip a fleet suitable to the emergency? And where on the lakes are the ship yards sufficiently defended in which to build our fleet? It is painful to think how vulnerable we are in this direction. Our weakness and danger are obvious to the dullest apprehension.

How different would be the state of the case if we could at once transfer our fleet of gunboats, now doing such good service on the ocean and the

gulf to the lakes. We might then in comparative safety and freedom from anxiety, set about those further means of defense which the lake region so much needs. Now, we are almost defenseless. Then we could defend our harbors and cities, or taking the offensive, threaten those of the enemy, or fight him on fair terms.

For the accomplishment of these desirable ends our fleet of river gunboats now in use is entirely unsuited, as they could not live an hour in rough weather on the lakes. Can there vessels be built which can pass through the proposed canal, and yet be capable of doing good service on the lakes? Upon the answer to this question of course will depend the utility of the proposed work in regard to the defense of the lakes.

Not only can vessels be built which will answer these conditions, but a fleet of them already exists. Acting Rear Admiral D. D. PORTER, commanding Mississippi Squadron, in answer to my inquiries on this subject says: "That a canal and locks of the dimensions contemplated will pass nearly every large, light gunboat we have in the navy, or that would be built for lake or sea service. Any vessel drawing eight feet can be lightened to six and-a-half by taking out her battery, coal, and stores." He then names several boats of both the river and sea going class which could pass through the canal, adding, "and some fifty vessels of their class." This, I take it, is satisfactory on this point, about which some good friends of the project had entertained doubts.

It may be observed also, in reference to the present river gunboats, that although they are unable to encounter successfully the waves of the great lakes, it will yet be very useful to be able to take them for repairs, up to the workshops at Chicago, and other towns along the line.

It is difficult to imagine a stronger case of military utility, not to say necessity, than is presented in this relation of the proposed communication to the defense of the lakes. Argument can hardly add to the force of the simple statement of the facts.

Not only would any fleet of gunboats when built be doubled in value, but the vast resources of the lake country in oak and fine timber and iron be available for further increasing the number. Besides the lessons which the ship builders of the lakes have learned under the necessity of adapting their vessels to the comparatively shallow harbors of these waters, and uniting carrying capacity with light draft, will be found of service in this connection. Their skill when called into exercise by the government, will combine the timber of the shores of Lakes Michigan, Huron, and Erie, and the tough iron of Lake Superior, into vessels able to carry the flag of the nation with honor to the torrid regions of the Gulf.

Look a moment also at the great facilities which this route will offer for the transportation of troops, supplies, and munitions of war when needed. The saving of water, over railroad transportation, and of large boats over small ones, is well known. It has been often exhibited in the most striking manner during the present war.

A few words seem to be demanded on the more general view of the subject. Its bearings upon the commercial, manufacturing, and agricultural industry of the country. The subject is so vast that I almost hesitate to say anything about it in the parting way in which other pressing duties will oblige me to do.

The great lakes and the Mississippi river are among the grandest features of the geography of the globe. Their names are at once suggestive of

commercial and agricultural wealth and national greatness. No such system of internal navigation exists elsewhere in the world. The most careful and accurate statements of their present uses for commercial purposes are truly wonderful, while the magnificent future to which enlightened enterprise may lead, tasks the strongest imagination. The Mississippi system of navigable waters is variously estimated at from 10,000 to 20,000 miles. Its numerous ramifications penetrate a country of unrivalled fertility and in many parts abounding in the useful metals. On the lakes we have a coast of 3,500 miles. Their commerce is estimated at the value of $400,000,000, "in articles of prime necessity, to the inhabitants of Eastern States and to our foreign commerce." That of the Mississippi in peaceful times is supposed to equal this. It is the union of these two mighty systems that we contemplate in the proposed improvement.

For this purpose no other route exists comparable to the line now proposed, in the economy of cost of the improvement, or in general utility. It is one of nature's highways, one of the lines which she marks out for the guidance of the great emigrant movements of the race, and by which topography foretells the march of empire. The aboriginal savage traveled by instinct, and now educated intelligence can find no better place for completing and uniting lines of travel and traffic embracing half a continent.

From what has been we may foretell what will be. When the present disorder shall have passed away, the interchange of products between the Northern and Southern States will be resumed. The cotton, sugar, and tobacco of the South will seek its market throughout the Northern States and Canadas, and in return the North will send its wheat, corn, pork, beef, and the various articles of manufacture, which it can so readily provide. This great commerce will gravitate to the cheapest channels. "Look a moment at the capacity of the canal and river improved as proposed," says Mr. GOODING in a recent letter. "It is believed that a boat or barge, built something like our canal boats but cheaper, would usually carry the freight instead of the steamer itself. But suppose our present canal boats be used; twelve of them carrying over 70,000 bushels of grain, with less than five feet draft of water, could be locked through one of our contemplated locks at one lockage, occupying perhaps fifteen or twenty minutes. A powerful steam-tug, such as is used for towing ships from the mouth of the Mississippi to New Orleans, would easily tow such a fleet of boats. It will therefore be apparent that were much less than one-half the old prices paid for freight it would pay enormously with this improved navigation." This gives certainly a very striking view of the facilities for transportation which the improvement will offer.

Consider, too, that these facilities will be *constant* through the seasons of navigation, not fluctuating, as is usual now, between flood and drought. The present season has been one of unusually good navigation in the Illinois river. The result is remarkable. With the report of the House of Representatives, heretofore referred to, was submitted an estimate of tolls, etc., for the five years proposed to be occupied in the construction of the canal, which can be so carried on as not to interfere with the navigation. The tolls for the first year are put down as likely to be the same as for the year 1861, viz: $218,000, and for the second at $230,000. I am informed that the tolls received up to a recent period, during the present season, exceeded those of the last year up to the same time by $40,000, and the receipts for the full season of navigation will not be less than $260,000,

and would have been from 25 to 30 per cent greater if there had been canal boats to do the business

The uncertainty of navigation in past years, owing to the liability of low water in the Illinois river, has discouraged boat-building, and the supply of boats is unequal to the demand. These facts point to the most favorable results to follow, upon making the navigation constant throughout the season, along the whole line from the Mississippi to the lake, to say nothing of the great increase which must inevitably follow the completion of the enlargement, affording so much greater capacity and economy. Cheaper transportation attracts a larger amount of freight and increases the revenue even at reduced rates of toll, as is shown by the Erie Canal. The two parts of the work are necessarily dependent upon each other, or rather the canal enlargement and the river improvement make but one work. It will not be worth while to make the one without the other.

It is stated that the tolls on the Erie Canal for 1861 were $3,800,000. It cost $40,000,000, and is 352 miles long. This proposed improvement is 316 miles long, of greater capacity than the Erie, and can be completed for $13,346,824. From a fair comparison of the two works, what may be expected of this? It will draw trade from down the Mississippi, from the Rocky Mountains, by way of the Missouri and the Yellowstone. The whole of the western half of the Mississippi system will be naturally tributary to it. While in turn it will pour through its capacious channel the merchandise and manufactures of the East. If, then, the present contracted canal, ninety-six miles long, and without facilities for doing all the business offered in a season of good navigation yields $260,000, may we not firmly expect that when the whole line of 316 miles is opened on the proposed scale, reducing the cost of transportation in proportion, it may yield five time that amount?

Or, if the work should cost $13,500,000, the interest on its cost would be $810,000. Taking the tolls to be derived from the enlarged work, shortly after completion, at only four times what they are for the present year, the amount would be $1,040,000, which would pay the interest and loan—$230,000 per annum, for repairs and superintendence, etc.

Surely this may be considered altogether within bounds, when we look at the growth of the country now going on, and the additional stimulus which such a work would give.

The country which will seek this route for its commerce has hardly commenced its agricultural development; hardly one acre in ten is under cultivation, and in large portions not one in a hundred. The want of facilities for transporting produce now represses the growth of this region, by tending to reduce the price of its products below a remunerative point. The East is directly interested in this matter. Any considerable reduction in the cost of transportation here would cheapen the food of every operative in the Eastern manufactories, and tend to draw from Europe the skilled laborers we so much need.

Another point is worth mentioning—the effect of such a work in increasing the assessable value of property in the region more directly affected by it. Of course nothing very definite can be arrived at in this direction. Analogy may help us as to some approximation to the amount. One of the projectors of the Erie Canal estimated its effect in this way, in five years, at full $400,000,000; and the differences between the two cases are all in favor of that under consideration. In the vast region communi-

cating almost immediately with this line, nearly the whole of the land is capable of profitable cultivation, and only waits increased means of transportation to be brought rapidly into use. But is the work *national*, so that Congress may rightfully execute it? A glance at the map will furnish a sufficient answer. Let the eye follow up the Mississippi, and crossing over to the lakes, dwell a moment upon the line of this work. How little labor and expense will suffice to effect a union between these two great systems of water? As the observer looks and thinks, the greatness of the idea will more and more open upon him. Its military and commercial bearings will develop into vaster proportions, till he will see that nowhere is there a work to compare with it in importance, except perhaps the projected canals across the Isthmuses of Darien and Suez.

All of which is most respectfully submitted by your obedient servant,

J. D. WEBSTER,
Col. 1st Reg't Ill. State Artillery.

Estimate for a ship and steamboat canal from Lake Michigan to the Illinois river, and the improvement of the Illinois river to the Mississippi river; the canal to be 160 feet wide on the bottom, sides protected with stone walls 10 feet high; the canal and river locks to be 350 feet long and 70 feet wide, with depth of water sufficient to pass steamboats and vessels drawing six feet of water; the canal to be supplied with water from Lake Michigan.

Chicago to Lockport, 29 miles:

The estimated cost of earth and rock excavation on the summit level from Chicago to Lockport, with walls on both sides 10 feet through the earth, is	$7,092,700

Lockport to La Salle, 67 miles:

The estimated cost of canal to Lake Joliet, and short canals at sixteen locks, walled on both sides; also six stone dams, 600 feet long, eleven canal and five river locks, each 350 feet long and 70 feet wide—making 138 feet of lockage between Lockport and La Salle—is	4,031,092

La Salle to the Mississippi river, 220 miles:

The cost of seven tree and crib dams, 900 feet long, the cribs to be filled with stone and stone abutments; also seven stone locks 350 feet long and 70 feet wide, with entrances protected, and insuring a depth of water on all bars to pass the largest steamboats and vessels drawing six feet, will be	1,045,000
Add for bridges, right of way, engineering, contingencies, etc.	578,032
Total	$13,346,824

THE MARINER'S COMPASS—IRON SHIPS.

The Jury at the International Exhibition on Ship Equipments, etc., in speaking of the mariner's compass, observe with satisfaction the progress generally made in the construction of this invaluable instrument. This is progress, they very properly remark, in the right direction; for, with the increasing use of iron in ship-building and fittings an efficient compass is imperative, and thorough efficiency cannot be secured without the greatest care in details and delicacy of manipulation.

In 1851 the laws and general principles affecting the compass in iron ships were professionally unknown. They had seriously engaged the attention of a few leading men of science, and so far back as 1839 the present Astronomer Royal of England had made an extended series of experiments by the desire of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty in the iron merchant ship "Rainbow." The resulting abstruse investigations did not receive then the attention they merited, though a tentative mode of adjusting the compass published in 1840, by Mr. Airy, became the basis of a system of compensation since generally adopted in the mercantile marine.

The rapid increase of iron-built ships subsequent to 1851, and the consequent appreciation of compass disturbances produced numerous plans; some for detecting the deviations without the aid of astronomical or other well known observations, others for correcting the deviations by peculiar arrangements of magnets, and even appliances for isolating the compass from the effects of local attraction appeared; many of these plans resulting from an imperfect knowledge of the laws and mode of action of magnetism were undoubted failures.

The melancholy loss of the iron emigrant ship "Taylour," with a great number of her crew and passengers, on the east coast of Ireland, in the early part of 1854, was traced in the main on the official inquiry to the changes of the ship's magnetism, or the imperfect action of the compasses which had been compensated at Liverpool a few days previously to the ship sailing from that port. Public opinion, which was much divided on the subject, eventually invoked the aid of science. A special discussion took place at the British Association at Liverpool in 1854, and ultimately a committee composed of practical and scientific men, interested in the question, was formed at Liverpool for the purpose of collecting information and making the necessary experiments. Three reports of this committee, the last dated February, 1861, have been presented to the Board of Trade, this department of government having liberally assisted the inquiry throughout. To this source and to the investigations of the Astronomer Royal and Archibald Smith, Esq., F.R.S., with the researches in the same field by other well known names, among whom we may worthily select the president of the Royal Society, General Sabine, we may have every confidence that a secure foundation of the theory and practice of compass management in iron ships is laid, which alone requires the general spread of education to render familiar to the intelligent seamen.

The recent improvements in the mariner's compass may be considered under three heads: 1. Independently of the deviation of the compass caused by the local attraction of the ship. 2. As regards arrangements for the correction of the deviation. 3. As regards arrangements of the compass for the purpose of diminishing, but not for the purpose of correcting the deviation of the compass.

1. The principal modern improvements have been the introduction of compound needles, and in the manufacture and fitting liquid compasses, the use of the latter in any excessive motion of a ship or boat being almost indispensable. Sir W. Snow Harris has also introduced a very effective compass, in which the oscillations are much reduced by the application of a thick copper ring in the compass bowl, and allowing the poles of the needles to approach very near to it.

By substituting two or more parallel bars for a single bar, which was formerly in universal use, several advantages are obtained, for example, the bars may be placed on their edge, whereby there can be no alteration of their magnetic axes. Greater directive power is obtained with the same weight. Also a combination of two equal parallel bars, of which the ends are 60°, or four, of which the ends are 30° apart, have the moments of inertia about all horizontal axes equal, and oscillations of the card about any axes are performed without any wabbling motion.

The following remarkable property also exists: When magnets or soft iron are placed as correctors, unless the needle be very short compared to the distance of the disturbing magnets or iron, a deviation is introduced depending on the length of a needle. This disappears if instead of the single bar needle the compass is composed of two bars, of which the effective ends are 60° apart. The same is the case with the needles, arranged as in the common Admiralty compass, viz.: at 15° and 45° on each side of the diameter. Such compasses are therefore much better adapted for being corrected than single bar needles.

2. Since the attention of the public has been turned to the subject of the deviation of the compass many schemes have been suggested, and many patents taken out for obviating entirely the effect of the iron of the ship on the compass, the projectors overlooking the fundamental law of magnetism that the interposition of a body between the magnet and the needle on which it acts can as little intercept the action of the magnet as the interposition of a body between the earth and another body would intercept the action of the gravitation of the earth, and also overlooking a very obvious consideration, that if any body could intercept the action of the ship's iron, it would also intercept the action of the earth's magnetic force on the needle.

The mode of correction by magnets and soft iron is susceptible of so many modifications that a greater number of appliances for this purpose than have been sent to the exhibition might have been anticipated. Two only, the Jury tell us, were exhibited, one the model of a binnacle or steering compass, designed originally for the main deck of the "Warrior," and ships of her class, is exhibited by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. The arrangement thus introduced is remarkable both in itself and also historically. It was many years ago observed that two compasses placed near each other as in the common double-binnacle, would produce a mutual disturbance. A regulation about the time was

issued by the Admiralty, forbidding the placing such compasses within such a distance as to allow of the effect being perceptible.

It lately occurred to the Superintendent of the Compass Department of the Admiralty (Mr. F. J. Evans, R. N.) in following up some investigations, that the disturbance thus caused being exactly opposite in direction to that part called the quadrantal, which is found more or less in every iron ship, (but especially large in amount in armour-plated war ships,) might be made use of to correct that error. On the model in question two compasses are arranged side by side, the distance being adjustible, and a scale being given of the amount of quadrantal deviation in a ship which can be corrected at different distances, so that when the quadrantal deviation is found in the usual way by swinging the ship, the compasses can be adjusted to a corresponding distance. This arrangement has also the advantage of permitting the correction of the remaining part of the deviation to be made in both compasses by one set of magnet bars placed between them.

In the other arrangement exhibited, magnets are introduced in the bottom of the compass bowl, (which is of the ordinary size,) and the adjustment for different latitudes is made by the application of magnets of different powers. Approval cannot be awarded to this arrangement. The magnets are much too near the compass. The supplying magnets of different power is not only a rude mode of adjustment, but requires much greater knowledge and practical skill than an adjustment by change of distances.

3. The iron ships of the present day have generally iron beams, and sometimes iron decks. The effect of this when the binnacle compass is placed on the deck is very serious, and it becomes of great importance to have the steering compass as high above the deck as is consistent with being seen by the steersman, and the Jury conclude that, in any vessel with iron beams, every compass should be at least three feet six inches from the deck.

DISTILLATION OF PETROLEUM.

SPECIFICATIONS OF THE PATENT GRANTED TO CHARLES BLACHFORD MANSFIELD, OF CLARE HALL, IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE, FOR AN IMPROVEMENT IN THE MANUFACTURE AND PURIFICATION OF SPIRITUOUS SUBSTANCES, AND OILS APPLICABLE TO THE PURPOSES OF ARTIFICIAL LIGHT AND VARIOUS USEFUL ARTS.

(Concluded from page 332, vol. xlvii.)

THERE are other substances which may be considered as impurities, viz.' napthaline, a solid hydrocarbon, which, when pure, boils at 212 degs. and is therefore found chiefly in the camphole, and in the first half of the dead oil. Paranaphthaline, a solid hydrocarbon, which boils at a temperature above 300 degrees, and is therefore chiefly in the last portions of the dead oil. Besides these, the most volatile of the spirituous substances, viz., alliole, since it has an ill smell, may be considered as an impurity, when present in such benzole as is required to be pure, all these, viz., naphthaline paranaphthaline, and alliole, are removed by a sufficient quantity of concentrated sulphuric acid, which forms peculiar compounds with them, which it dissolves and carries with it to the bottom of the other hydro carbonaceous spirituous substances, on which, with the exception of camphole, it acts much less powerfully.

I proceed now to the application of these facts to the purification of the different oils and spirituous substances manufactured according to the first part of my invention. If a very volatile spirit be required, which is not required to be entirely free from a slightly disagreeable smell, I take any portion of the most volatile part of the naptha, separated according to the principles which I have set down; but I prefer to take for this purpose such as may have been distilled over, before the temperature in the retort in the second or third distillation, or in the last distilling vessel, if a complex rectifying apparatus be used, has risen above 80 deg. This spirituous substance, which I call alliole, will not be absolutely pure, being mixed with a certain portion of benzobe, but will usually be found to be characterized by the peculiar smell of the pure alliole. I add to this alliole about one-fourth its bulk of a cold moderately dilute acid, for which use I prefer hydrochloric acid of specific gravity 1.16, mixed with five times its bulk of water; but a much stronger hydrochloric acid may be used, or oil of vitriol mixed with nine times its bulk of water. I do not state that these preparations are absolutely necessary, but they are convenient, the requisite condition being that the acids be not concentrated nitric or sulphuric acid; since these acids when concentrated, destroy the alliole in proportion to the quantity in which they are used. I agitate the alliole with the acid in a suitable vessel, which should be nearly closed, or so constructed as to prevent evaporization of the spirituous substance which is under treatment; all that is necessary being to keep the acid and spirituous substance in a state of intimate mixture for a sufficient time, to enable the acid to form salts with the ammonia and oily alkaloids, which accompany the crude alliole; I then allow the ves-

sel to stand undisturbed, till the two fluids have separated; I then draw off the acid liquor, and wash the alliole by agitating it with about its bulk of clean water in the same manner as with the acids. The alliole, if then allowed to separate from the water and drawn off, is fit for use. But it is convenient sometimes to rectify it again, and to allow it to stand for some time, after careful separation from any water that may accompany it, upon fresh-burnt lime, which will remove any acid and water that may still adhere to it.

The spirituous substance so obtained will be found to have a slightly alliacious odor, somewhat resembling that of bisulpheret of carbon, to be extremely volatile, and is placed in a retort and distilled should begin to boil about 65 degs. or 70 degs.; and the greatest portion of its bulk should distil over before the temperature from the retort arrives at 80 degs., and the temperature should then rise very fast, and the retort should be dry at about 90 degs. or a little above. This spirituous substance will be found to be an excellent solvent of caoutchouc, gutta-percha, and many of the resins, it will mix with pyroxylic spirit in equal proportions, if the spirit be not too much diluted with water, and may be used when so mixed for dissolving shell lac, or shell-lac and gutta-percha, or caoutchouc mixed, though it will not dissolve lac in sufficiently large quantities when alone, or it may be mixed with a solution of lac in pyroxilic spirit in similar proportions. And the proportions in which it may be mixed with any sample of pyroxylic spirit may be readily ascertained, by putting a known quantity of the alliole into a graduated glass, and pouring it into the pyroxilic spirit, at the same time shaking the mixture until the whole of the alliole is dissolved, and a clear transparent mixture results, which shows no streaks of milkiness when the surface in an open glass is slightly blown upon. The proportion or quantity of spirit which has been added to the alliole which was in the glass, shows the proportions in which they may be mixed. Alliole so prepared also yields a brilliant light when burned by the aid of a current of air. Next is the purification of benzole prepared from coal tar or the products of coal tar. If this be not required perfectly free from the odor of alliole, and if moderate purity be only required, I treat this spirit in the same manner which I have described for the treatment of alliole; and if it be required for burning with the aid of a current of air, as hereinafter described, I prefer to treat it in this manner, by which all the spirituous substance is preserved intact, while the picoline and other alkaline substances, which chiefly cause the disagreeable smell of the naptha, are removed; and I consider it sufficiently pure for this purpose when a piece of white deal, dipped first into the benzole and then into hydrochloric acid, does not acquire a red or pink color. If, however, a volatile substance be required as a solvent, or for any other purpose where freedom from an unpleasant odor is necessary, the treatment is different. Instead of agitating the benzole with dilute acid, I agitate it with concentrated sulphuric acid, in the proportion of about one half pound of acid to a gallon of the benzole, which destroys the alliole, at the same time that it removes the basic oils, and oxidizes any of the brown forming substance which may be present; and I prefer to add with the sulphuric acid a small portion of the nitrate of potash, or nitrate of soda, about one ounce to half a pound of sulphuric acid, or nitric acid, or nitrous acid, or aquafortis of specific gravity about 1.30, in the proportion of one fluid ounce to half a pound of sulphuric acid; the addition of nitric acid tends greatly to bring out the pleasant smell of the benzole from the

more perfect oxidation of oxidable substances which are present, and from the formation of a small quantity of the sweet-smelling compound, of which I have already spoken, which, when the benzole is rectified, is separated in the residue; or instead of sulphuric acid, mixed with nitric acid or its salts I use nitric acid, nitrous acid, or aquafortis alone, of specific gravity about 1.30 or 1.40, or nitric acid mixed with hydrochloric acid, or nitro-muriatic acid, in the proportion of half a pound of the acid to a gallon of the benzole, or instead of the nitrate of potash or soda, I use a similar proportion of bichromate of potash. I then, after agitation, allow the mixture to settle and then draw off the benzole from the thickened acid. I then sometimes add to the benzole a small quantity of the chloride of lime and some moderately strong acid, and stir the mixture, but this further deoxidizing process is seldom necessary. And whether this last process be used or not, I now agitate the benzole with water and complete its purification in the same manner as the alliole is purified. The spirituous substance so obtained will be found to be very volatile; if placed in a retort, it should commence to boil at 30 degs. and the largest portion of it should come over before the temperature in the retort reaches 85 degs., and the retort should be dry at 100 degrees without leaving any residue. If subjected to a temperature of 20 deg. below 0 degrees. (—20 degs.) it should deposit so large a quantity of crystaline matter as to become almost entirely solid. It should have a smell somewhat like that of almonds. It will be found to be an excellent solvent for the same purposes as alliole, being very useful for making many kinds of varnishes. If a solution of gutta-percha be made in benzole, and the solution be spread as a varnish on a smooth surface, such as glass or porcelain, the spirituous parts will rapidly evaporate, and will leave the gutta-percha in a tough film on the surface, which must be peeled off, and in this way, by properly adjusting the surface and carefully peeling off the varnish, artificial membranes applicable to many useful purposes may be made, or by spreading the solution on the surface of the human body, an excellent plaster or artificial skin may be obtained in cases in which protection is desirable. This benzole is an excellent solvent for camphor, essential oils, fats, wax, and many other substances. It may be used as a substitute for spirits of wine in some of the arts, and for oil of turpentine in most of the purposes to which that hydrocarbon is applied, having the property of far greater volatility than the latter substance, which in many instances would be an advantage. Benzole admits, however, of yet further purification, which for some purposes it is desirable to effect, and this is accomplished by freezing. But since for those purposes for which it would be required to be so highly rectified, it would probably be required to be as free as possible from all foreign oily matters, I recommend that it be again treated with sulphuric acid, with or without the addition of saltpetre or nitric acid, or with nitric acid alone, or with nitro-muriatic acid, as above described, or that it be distilled with about one quarter its bulk of a mixture of two parts concentrated sulphuric acid and one part of a concentrated aqueous solution of bichromate of potash, or with a small quantity of chromic acid; and I recommend that such treatment be repeated until the benzole, on being agitated with cold oil of vitriol, no longer confersa dark color upon the acid; but strong nitric or nitro-muriatic acids must not be used in so large proportion as sulphuric acid may be used, since the benzole may be decomposed by the former acids, though not by the sulphuric acids.

When this further treatment with acids has been used, I wash the benzole

well with water or with lime water to remove the acid, and distil it either with or without the addition of some lime, and I prefer to insert a thermometer in the retort, and to receive for refrigeration what comes over, while the temperature in the retort is between 79 degs. and 88 degs. What comes over beyond may be mixed with some of the crude spirituous substances, reserved as purified toluole, of which it will partly consist. The benzole may be further rectified by distillation any number of times, and that portion of the distillate should always in that case be reserved separately for purification, which comes over between 80 degs. and 85 degs.

The reduction of benzole to a state of further purity, depends upon the property which it possesses and which distinguishes it from coal naptha, and from all the other hydrocarbons contained in the naptha, viz., that of becoming solid when exposed to a low temperature, and of melting again when pure at a temperature a little above that at which ice melts. The degree of cold requisite to solidify the fluid will vary inversely with the degree of purity which it has previously attained by distillation. If nearly pure it will solidify at 0 deg., if about half the fluid be benzole, and the rest the other hydrocarbons of the naptha, which distil over with it, the benzole will crystalize out of the solution, when exposed to a temperature of 20. degs. And I may state that, generally, if the crude benzole obtained by once distilling the first runnings of the coal naptha, or the whole light oil or the rectified naptha, as described in the first part of my invention, viz., from a boiler surmounted by a head surrounded with water, which is allowed to become heated to ebullition, be again rectified in a similar apparatus, and the first portion of the distillate equal to one-third the quantity placed in the retort (especially if the very first one-sixteenth portion be set aside separately as alliole, which does not solidify at 0 deg.,) or if that portion which comes over while the temperature in the retort is rising from 80 degs. to 90 degs. be reserved as benzole, that portion so received on the second distillation will, if submitted to a temperature of —20 degrees, become in great part solid, depositing crystaline matter equal to at least half its bulk. By further rectification both of the mother liquor of the solid portion (that is, of that portion of the spirituous substance which is separated as fluid from the solid benzole after refrigeration,) and also of the rest of the distillate on this second rectification, a further portion of spirituous substance may be obtained which will solidify at —20 degs. I now expose the benzole which has been prepared for refrigeration to a low temperature in a suitable vessel, and for the production of this low temperature I use if it be necessary, a freezing mixture. When the benzole has been so congealed, I expose it to a powerful pressure, and the more powerful the pressure by which this separation is effected the purer will be the result, and the lower the temperature at which the operation of pressure is conducted, the larger will be the produce. The fluid pressed out is set aside, and after further rectification, if required, will yield another proportion of solid matter by refrigeration.

The purification may be carried still further, either by again pressing at a temperature of 0 deg. the mass obtained by a first pressure, or by placing the mass in a funnel, and allowing it to melt slowly in the air, with the bulb of a thermometer immersed in the mass, reserving as pure that which remains solid when the temperature of the mass has risen to 0 deg. I call the substance so produced absolute benzole. It will be found to boil constantly at 80 degs. or 81 degs. It will produce a state of intoxication if in-

haled in the manner in which ether is used. It is an excellent substitute for ether in many cases in which ether is applied, as for the solution of iodine, quinine, wax, and fatty and volatile oils The next spirituous substance, or toluole, which when pure boils at about 110 deg., and which may be obtained in a state of partial purity by reserving the last portions which come over in the rectification of benzole, and the first which come over in the rectification of camphole, is purified by treatment with acids in the same manner as the benzole but not by refrigeration. And I wish it to be understood, that by purified toluole, I do not mean a chemically pure hydrocarbon having a fixed boiling point, but I mean an oily or spirituous substance obtained from the coal naptha, which will boil chiefly between 100 degs. and 130 degs. being so much of the naptha as remains after separating on the one hand as much as possible of the spirituous substances that will yield a white flame with a current of air passed through them, and on the other hand as much as possible of the oily substances which will not take fire on the surface on the application of a lighted match, both being understood of of the fluids at the ordinary temperature of the air.

Since all that applies to toluole as regards its purification, is also applicable to common naptha, and to other bituminous and empyreumatic oils, such as petroleum, or native naptha, the oil distilled from bituminous schist, &c., I will here state my method of purification as applied to coal naptha, generally observing, however, that in the application of concentrated sulphuric acid to common coal naptha, a certain proportion of oil is lost by the destruction of much of the cumole by the acid, I add to the naphtha, or toluole separated as above described, concentrated sulphuric acid in the proportion of about three quarters of a pound, and nitric acid or aquafortis in the proportion of about a quarter of a pound to a gallon of the naptha or toluole, which has been previously carefully separated from water. I then agitate them well together in a suitable leaden or other vessel. The nitric acid need not be the strongest, that of specific gravity between 1.30 and 1.40 is suitable, and it need not be pure; the crude acid known as nitrous acid, or the acid called single aquafortis may be used.

I do not confine myself exactly to the proportions here given, or I use a mixture of nitric and hydrochloric acids, or nitro-muriatic acid, or nitrate of potash or of soda, instead of nitric acid, in about the same proportions, with or without the addition of an equal proportion of bichromate of potash, or bichromate of potash without the nitrates; but if I use these salts instead of nitric acid, I prefer to use a rather larger proportion of sulphuric acid. Since the object is not to form definite chemical compounds, exact proportions are unnecessary; all that is requisite is to have sufficient free sulphuric acid to dissolve the naphthaline, or a part of the naphthaline, in the naphtha, and not sufficient to dissolve much of the other hydrocarbons; to have sufficient free acid of any sort to dissolve all the alkaline oils (aniline, picoline, &c.) and to have enough of the oxidizing agents, sulphuric, nitric, or chromic acids, to convert at once all the coloring matter into new volatile products, and to have enough nitric acid to convert a small quantity of the naptha into an aromatic oil, which leaves a slight fragrance in the naphtha when separated from it by subsequent distillation. After thorough agitation and subsidence, I withdraw the naphtha, and wash it thoroughly with a large quantity of water till all the acid is removed. It is advisable to separate the naphtha carefully from the acid before adding the water, otherwise certain compounds may be precipitated by the water from the

sulphuric acid liquor, which may impair the purity of the oils. I then either agitate the naptha with a solution of caustic lime, caustic soda, or caustic potash, (preferring lime or soda to potash as being cheaper); and then either distil the oil with the alkaline fluid, or after removing it from the alkaline fluid in a still, to which fire is directly applied; or I rectify it by passing steam through it in the manner already known and in use; and when so distilling, I sometimes pass the vapor through a dry lime purifier, as hereafter described, when speaking of the purification of camphole. I then carefully separate the naphtha from water, and it is fit for use; or I sometimes allow it to stand, after agitation with chloride of calcium or chloride of lime, in vessels in which a small quantity of those substances has been placed which remove the remainder of the water.

The toluole or naphtha so purified is applicable to the melting of varnishes, and to combustion in lamps, in which oil of turpentine or coal naphtha are usually burned, and also to burning in lamps when mixed with alchoholic or pyroxylic spirit; or to napthalizing a current of heated air so as to confer on it illuminating properties on being ignited.

The camphole which is obtained by the rectification of the last portions of the light oil, and the first portions of the heavy oils of coal tar, is purified in a different manner, since, firstly, it contains a large quantity of creosote and other acid substances, and secondly, a considerable portion of the hydrocarbon, which is required to be purified, is destroyed by treatment with concentrated nitric or sulphuric acids. And the method which I adopt to purify this oil is to digest it with a caustic alkaline lye, and to distil it so that its vapor may pass over lime, and to agitate it with hydrochloric acid, or with dilute nitric or sulphuric acids; and I prefer to treat it first with alkali for this purpose. In a boiler or retort with two apertures or necks, one of which is directly connected with the upper condenser hereinafter mentioned, and the other with the condenser of an ordinary still, (which boiler I prefer to be of cast iron,) I place the crude camphole with about a quarter its bulk of a solution in water of caustic potash or caustic soda of specific gravity about 1.150 or with a similar quantity of a solution of hydrate of lime in water, with an excess of fresh-slaked lime, or with dry caustic potash, or caustic soda, in the proportion of a quarter of a pound of the alkali to a gallon of the oil, or with caustic lime in rather larger proportions (the carbonates of soda and potash may be used, but they do not act so perfectly as the caustic alkalies or lime in the removal of the acid substances, and in the oxidation of the other impurities). The boiler or retort is surmounted with a vapor chamber, or head similar to that recommended for the rectification of benzole, it being so connected with one of the necks of the retort, that all the vapors condensed in it shall flow freely back into the retort. This head is kept surrounded with water as cold as possible, as the object of it is to condense all the vapors and return them to the retort; it may be connected by its other or upper opening with a still-worm to condense any vapors that may escape, or its other opening may be closed with a loaded safety valve, The oil and caustic lye being placed in the retort, the neck of the retort which is directly connected with the still-worm is closed, and that connected with the upper chamber is opened; fire is applied, and the aqueous solution is to be allowed to boil. The ebullition will continue for any length of time, if the condensr in the upper condenser be perfect, and even if a small quantity of vapor be allowed to escape condensation, the digestion will continue for a sufficient length of time.

I allow this digestion to continue for five or six hours after ebullition has commenced. I then either lower the fire to stop ebullition, and draw off the watery solution through a pipe at the bottom of the boiler, and then close the neck connected with the upper condenser, and open the other neck of the retort which is directly connected with the still-worm, and then distil the oil over; or I change the outlet in the same way, and distil without first drawing off the lye. In the latter case, oil and water will come over together at first, and the temperature in the retort will not rise far above 100 degs. or 110 degs. till nearly all the water and a large quantity has come over; but if the water be drawn off, the temperature in the retort will soon rise rapidly to 140 degs. or 150 degs. before any fluid distils. I then sometimes set aside the first portion that distils over so long as samples taken in a small open vessel catch fire on the surface on the application of a lighted match, and I prefer to receive as camphole that which comes over subsequently till the temperature in the retort reaches 190 degs. The residue is distilled over, distillation being stopped when the temperature in the retort reaches about 300 degs., if it should rise so high before distillation ceases, and is mixed with the dead oil in the same stage of purification, unless this residual distillate contain much naphthaline, in which case it will solidify partially or entirely, and the solid part is rejected and the fluid part only of this residual distillate is added to the dead oil. The camphole, after this distillation, is now agitated either with hydrochloric acid, or with dilute, sulphuric or nitric acid, formed by mixing the strong acids of commerce with about six times their bulk in water. This agitation is continued for a convenient length of time, and may be done in an open vessel with a stirrer. Having allowed the fluids to separate, I draw off the acid, and then I sometimes repeat the agitation with a further quantity of dilute acid with the addition of some chloride of lime in the proportion of a quarter of a pound of chloride of lime to a gallon of the acid but this may be omitted. The oil is drawn off and well washed with water, from which it is separated and then rectified. It may be rectified by passing steam through it, or by distilling from a retort to which fire is directly applied, but in either case it is convenient to place between the retort and the condenser a vessel similar to the dry lime purifiers used for purifying coal gas, in which lime is placed on plates or gratings in a chamber having only two openings, so that the vapors pass over the lime, and I prefer to have this lime purifier of such size that it may contain lime conveniently spread in the quantity of about half a pound of lime, more or less, to a gallon of the oil placed in the retort, but a smaller vessel may be used. This vessel is so arranged that the vapor of the oil, or water and oil, as it leaves the retort passes over the lime which deprives it of dry acid remaining in it, and then passing into the condenser is reduced to the fluid form. But I prefer to rectify it in a retort over fire directly applied without the presence of water or steam, and to use a thermometer inserted in the retort, and to cease receiving as camphole when the temperature in the retort reaches 190 degs. By this means I obtain the oil colorless, and if it should be of specific gravity, .890 or .900, or if the distillation be not continued so far, the specific gravity may be so low as .870. Concentrated sulphuric and nitric acid, separately or mixed, may be used in the purification of camphole; but I prefer not to use such acids, as a considerable loss of hydrocarbon is thereby sustained, and the use of concentrated nitric acid sometimes confers a yellow color on the oil which it does not lose on rectification. I sometimes repeat this treatment with alkali

and acid once or oftener. Camphole so purified is applicable, either alone or mixed with some of the oils having lower boiling points separated in my processes, or with the pyroxylic spirit for burning in the lamps. It is also useful as a substitute for oil of turpentine in making varnishes.

For the purification of the dead oil I adopt the same method of digesting with an alkali as that which I have described for camphole, but I prefer to use a stronger lye and in larger proportions, and to continue the digestion for a longer time before I change the outlet and commence distillation, since the dead oil contains a larger quantity of acid substances. The same description of apparatus and the same sorts of alkali are applicable to the dead oil as to the camphole, but caustic alkalies are much to be preferred to carbonates. And in rectifying the dead oil from which the camphole has been previously separated by distillation, which is that which I prefer to treat in this manner, though the method is equally applicable to dead oil from which the camphole has not been removed after digestion with the alkali. If the lye be not drawn off, very little oil will be carried over with the water which distils off first, and whether the lye be or be not drawn off, I prefer to receive separately all the oil which comes over, before the temperature in the retort reaches 200 degs., and if there be little naphthaline present, I add this oil to the camphole of the corresponding degree of purity. If there be much naphthaline present, I reject so much of that part of the distillate from the dead oil as solidifies in the cold, which will be the case in some instances while the temperature is rising from 210 degs. to 220 degs., or even higher. And the quantity which it will be convenient to reject may be found by observing whether a thin film of the distillate received on a cold surface solidifies, when the temperature in the retort is above 210 degs., when it ceases to solidify; on being so examined I commence to receive the mortuole for purification. If none solidify on cooling, I receive all the distillate above 200 degs. together, till the temperature in the retort reaches 230 degs. or 290 degs., I reject what comes over above as containing too much paranaphthaline. And, instead of treating the oil with dilute acid, I treat the dead oil, after distilling from the caustic lye, with oil of vitriol, in the proportion of one pound of the oil of vitriol to one gallon of oil, and with or without the addition of a small quantity of nitric acid; I agitate the acid with the oil in a suitable vessel for one or two hours, and I prefer to allow the oil to stand with the acid for two or three days, and to repeat the agitation occasionally. I then draw off the oil from the acid, after having allowed it to settle. Finally I distil it through a dry lime purifier, as described for the purification of camphole. The oil should be collected in this rectification between the temperature of 220 degs. and 280 degs. This oil will be of a pale yellow, or almost colorless. I sometimes repeat this treatment of the mortuole with acids and alkali, once or oftener.

It is convenient sometimes further to purify the mortuole, camphole, and other oils and spirituous substances, by filtering them through finely divided carbon, for which purpose I prefer animal charcoal or lampblack, which has been digested for a short time in oil of vitriol, or boiled in a solution of carbonate of potash, and then dried and heated to redness in a closed vessel recently before use. And the filtration may be conveniently conducted by placing the oil in the filtering apparatus, over a vessel or receiver, into which the oil will be forced thtough the filterer by the pressure of the air, when the air is exhausted from the receiver. By further treatment with caustic alkali or lime, and with sulphuric acid, and by subsequent rectifica-

tion, the mortuole may be obtained quite colorless. The oil so obtained is applicable to many of the purposes to which oil of turpentine is applied, and also to many of the purposes to which fixed oils are applicable, and it is applicable either alone or mixed with the more volatile hydrocarbons to burning in naphtha vapor pressure lamps, and when mixed with pyroxylic spirit in suitable proportions, to burning in lamps in which oil of turpentine or the fixed oils are burned.

What I here claim in respect to this second part of my invention, is the purification of the spirituous substances and oils which I manufaeture from coal-tar, by treatment with chemical agents, according to principles laid down, depending on the nature of the spirituous substance and oils aforesaid and of the impurities desired to be removed.

I also claim the use of nitric or nitrous acid, of nitro-muriatic acid, and of chromic acid, and the salts of those acids in the purification of empyreumatic and bituminous volatile oils, and the purification of certain of the oils manufactured from coal-tar by digestion with alkalies in the manner above described, and by distilling them so that their vapor is passed over lime, in the manner above described, and the purification of a spirituous substance obtained from coal-tar by congelation and pressure, which substance so purified I call absolute benzole.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

PUBLIC ANXIETY—ESTIMATED DEBT—SECRETARY'S PLAN—FUNDS RAISED IN THE PAST YEAR—PRICES IN GOLD—MODE OF REASONING—PAPER MONEY AND STOCKS—ANNUAL REPORT—AMOUNT OF CURRENCY—SCALE OF DEPRECIATION—ADVANCE IN PRICES—LOANS WITHOUT INTEREST—BANK SCHEMES—UNIFORM TAXATION—PURCHASING SPECIE—CHANGE THE ½ EAGLE—SECRETARY AND CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE OF WAYS AND MEANS—CORPORATION PLANS—PRICES OF STOCKS—IMPORTS—TABLE OF THE PORT—EXPORT TABLE—SPECIE MOVEMENT—STOCKS PAID IN COIN—FUTURE LOANS—EFFECT OF BILLS ON EXPORTS—RATES OF EXCHANGE—HARVESTS ABROAD—SPECIE TO INDIA.

THE report of the Secretary of the Treasury, which had been so anxiously looked for, made its appearance at the opening of the session, but failed to allay the public inquietude in relation to the government resources. It proved to be more of a political document, than a faithful expose of the financial situation of the government. On another page the leading features of the report will be found, and it will be seen that the estimated debt July, 1863, is $1,122,297,403, to be increased by $622,300,701 for the succeeding year, making, in round numbers, $1,000,000,000 to be raised by loans in the next eighteen months, in addition to the sums raised by taxation. The Secretary, after a very long and disconnected report, concludes with asking that no more demand notes be issued; that the law authorizing $500,000,000 of six per cent stock, redeemable after five years and within twenty, be so modified that outstanding notes shall not be convertible into the stock at par, and that the Secretary may have the discretion of selling it at any price *under market value;* the amount that may be issued be increased, and that a general banking law may be enacted to compel all banks doing business to secure their notes on United States stock. The Secretary argues that this would create a market for the stock, and furnish a uniform currency. These recommendations in themselves, amount simply to nothing whatever. The public understood from them that paper money was really the chief reliance of the Department, while the Secretary sought to throw upon Congress the odium of the measure. The report shows that during the past year ending December 1st, there have been comparatively no loans of capital made by the public to the government. The whole revenue has been derived from temporary expedients. The money has been raised as follows mostly:

Currency notes paid out	$200,000,000
Deposits certificates paid out	79,728,650
One-year " "	87,363,241
Three-year bonds 7.30 "	50,000,000
Received on 20-year bonds	22,000,000
Converted 5-20 year bonds	23,750,000
Total	$462,911,891

These are the sums raised since the report of December, 1861. The $22,000,000 of 6 per cent 20-year stock, was money paid in up to date on the loan previously made in November. The 3-year bonds were mostly paid out to creditors, and of the $500,000,000 bonds authorized, only $23,750,000 have been converted into notes. Two hundred millions

have been obtained from currency on demand; $79,298,000 from deposits payable at ten days notice, and $87,363,241 from certificates payable in in the year. These bear 6 per cent interest in gold, and sell at 96½ for currency, which gives 12½ per cent per annum for the money. Thus, gold being 33⅓ per cent, the holder of a $1,000 bond gets for interest $60 in gold, which is worth $80 in currency, and he gets $100 for 96½ paid, making $108 received within the year for an outlay of 96½. This is the rate at which the government borrows. Nevertheless, the price of its stock has fallen from par for a 6 per cent 20-year stock in gold, to 75 for gold. The Secretary now affects to propose to go on and borrow $1,000,000,000 more on stock, by allowing him to fix his own terms and prices, and to issue no more notes. His mode of reasoning is very extraordinary. He states that brokers and speculators will not buy the stocks if the public can buy on the same terms, viz.: at par, or at the market value. He therefore asks for "discretion," to enable him to make private bargains with speculators, who may realize a profit by sales to the public; but the private negotiations of $3,000,000 7-3/10 bonds last June, was not so successful as to give a favorable idea of these new propositions. He states: "amounts are seldom taken, except with a view to re-sales at a profit, and re-sales at any profit are impossible under the law. Negotiations *below market value* are not allowed, and if not allowed the taker of the bonds can expect no advance, unless a market value considerably below par shall become established. * * * A discretionary power may, perhaps, be advantageously conferred on the Secretary, to be exercised as exigencies may require or allow."

This is a plan for the negotiation of $1,000,000,000 demanded for the service of the next eighteen months, and is certainly quite the reverse of the "popular loan," about which the Secretary was before so sanguine. The Secretary is possessed of the idea, which is also apparently common to the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, that the ability of the government to borrow money, depends upon the amount of its own paper money in circulation. He cannot divest himself of the idea that paper promises are capital, instead of being only the medium in which capital is transfered. His view was as follows:

"The government can resort to borrowing, only when the issue of notes has become sufficiently large to warrant a just expectation that loans of the notes can be had from those who hold, or can obtain them at rates not less advantageous than those of coin loans before suspension.

"The extension of the United States note circulation, until sufficient in amount to enable the Secretary to obtain it from holders by way of loans, was equally inevitable. A practical limit on increase is imposed by the judicious legislation of Congress, which *makes the notes receivable* for loans.

"Whenever the volume of notes reaches a point where the loan can be effected at rates fair to the country, and desirable to takers, loans will of course be made, and ample opportunities for conversion offered.

"A comparatively small reduction of (bank note) circulation, will allow ample room for the whole increase of the United States circulation, authorized by existing laws; and as the reduction proceeds, the increase may be extended, never, however, passing the point which *admits the negotiation of loans at reasonable rates.*"

Thus, the amount of capital that may be loaned the government, de-

pends upon the amount of paper afloat. In relation to the amount outstanding, and its effect upon the loans proposed, we have the following:

"The time and rate of the 5-20 loan authorized were judiously determined, and he believes that if the suggested changes are made in the law, the needed supplies can be obtained through these loans.

"Without any issues of United States notes beyond the amount now authorized, it seems certain that loans for the whole amount required for the current year *can readily be obtained* at fair rates.

"It points indeed directly to the conclusion, that loans in sufficient amounts to meet the disbursements of the government, could *not now be obtained* at rates which a due regard to the interests of the tax payers would permit the Secretary to accept."

This is a very extraordinary mode of reasoning. The issues are and are not sufficient, yet if the Secretary can have power to make private bargains with jobbers, the loans, he thinks, can be obtained, notwithstanding the "interests of tax payers." It is not a matter of surprise that such a document fell still-born upon the public. The Secretary reasoned that there was no inflation of the currency in the last year, notwithstanding the government issues, and the premium of 30 per cent on gold. He states the position of the currency as follows:

	November, 1861.	November, 1862.
United States notes	$15,140,000	$210,104,000
Bank notes	130,000,000	167,000,000
Coin in banks and circulation	210,000,000	.....
Total	$355,140,000	$377,104,000

It appears that there is $232,000,000 more paper outstanding than last year. The banks now hold more specie than then. A large proportion of $50,000,000 of the amount the Secretary gives for last year, was in Southern banks; $50,000,000 is in the shape of plate, and now being taxed; $50,000,000 more was silver coin. These facts the report does not state, but it proceeds to argue that the paper currency is not redundant, notwithstanding that gold was 30 per cent premium. That such is the case, may be reasonably inferred from the fact that the prices of many of the most important articles of consumption have declined or not materially advanced during the year. At the same date to which this applies, the *Gazette*, of Cincinnati, Mr. CHASE's home organ, gives the following table illustrative of the markets now and a year ago:

	1861.	1862.	Advance.
Flour, super	$4 00	$5 50	$1 50
Flour, extra	4 10	5 40	1 20
Coffee	16 @ 17 c.	35 @ 36 c.	19 c.
Sugar	9 @ 10 c.	12 @ 13 c.	3 c.
Molasses	43 @ 44 c.	61 @ 62 c.	18 c.
Butter	10 @ 12 c.	18 @ 20 c.	8 c.
Prints	10½ c.	20 c.	9½ c.
Hay	$9 @ 10	$13 @ 14	$4 00
Lard oil	63 c.	80 c.	17 c.
Linseed oil	66 c.	$1 15	49 c.
Potatoes	37 c.	1 00	63 c.
Pork	$9 50	$10 75	$1 25

The curious reader will observe that in every case, the advance has been the same, 30 per cent, as that of gold, and in some cases very much higher. There are some instances where the supply of an article cut off from its natural market is unusually low, bringing no more in depreciated paper than it did a year ago in gold. The Secretary contends that his paper currency, which inflicts such heavy burdens upon the public, is money obtained without interest, and he cannot therefore admit that it inflicts a tax of 30 per cent upon every individual. Nevertheless, he is very willing to forego the borrowing without interest, in order to issue the notes through the banks. He states the $250,000,000 notes outstanding are a loan without interest. He asks that those notes be converted into a 6 per cent stock, which shall be the basis of bank issues to the same amount, redeemable in the government notes. In other words, he wishes to pay the banks $15,000,000 interest in gold annually, equal at the present rate to $20,000,000 in paper on those stocks, on which the banks may issue $250,000,000 of their own paper without interest, and redeemable only in government notes. If the bank notes are to be based on the government notes, why not allow the latter to remain as they are, without paying the bankers $15,000,000 per annum in gold to issue substitutes? Inasmuch as on the proposed plan there is to be no limit upon the irredeemable issues of the banks, the depreciation of the currency will continue to inflict immense burdens upon the people. By the bank plan, which he states is to make "one uniform currency," there would be four currencies, viz., gold, for customs and stockholders; United States notes, legal tender; "national currency," redeemable in the United States notes, and lastly, the present bank notes that are to be taxed out of existence. Inasmuch as that taxation must be "uniform," it is difficult to see how the issues of one bank may be taxed and those of another exempt from tax.

The Secretary states that, when victories shall have brought peace, the "ample resources" of the government will enable it "to purchase specie to replace large amounts," and thus bring about resumption. The Secretary certainly reflects but little on the situation when he ventures such statements. There was abundance of coin in the country when the Secretary, by his paper issues, drove it out. When those issues shall have run their inevitable course and have utterly perished, specie will return. If the Secretary were to undertake to buy it back, with what would he pay? The specie now goes abroad because of debts created by paper money, and to get it back supposes some other means of payment. The Secretary also appropriates his "ample revenue," which he estimates at $55,000,000, to the redemption of the public debt on the return of peace. He states that it will pay 3 per cent on a debt of $1,700,000,000, evidently calculating upon the permanence during peace of the war taxes, which he estimates at $220,000,000 per annum. The confusion of ideas which induces the Secretary to propose buying gold to resume specie payments, is also illustrated in the following extract: "If the half eagle of the Union be made of equal weight and fineness with the gold sovereign of Great Britain, no sensible injury could possibly arise from the change; while, on the resumption of specie payments, its great advantages would be felt in the *equalization of exchanges* and the convenience of commerce." This has the appearance of a joke; but it is hardly to be supposed that when he proposes a permanent tax of $157,000,000 to pay the interest

and sinking fund of a debt of $1,700,000,006, contracted mostly for the creation of the most scandalous private fortunes of government partisans, he will take to joking otherwise than in his intercourse with the President.

Following the decimal notation, the half eagle is $5. If it were reduced to the weight of the sovereign it would be $4 84. The Napoleon of France is $3 84; the Prussian crown, $6 64; the Belgium 25-francs, $4 72; the Austrian sovereign, $6 75. How are all these and many more values to be "equalized" by putting 19 grains less gold into the half eagle? Or how can that equalize exchanges which depend upon international debts?

The results of the financial situation, as expressed in the report, are of a very gloomy character. They indicate a very rapid descent on the downward slope towards national bankruptcy, and therefore were not calculated to improve general business. The depression which Mr. CHASE's report produced was not relieved when the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, in a speech of December 18, denounced Mr. CHASE's plan, and proposed one still more expensive himself, viz: to call in and cancel the stock issued since the law making the interest payable in coin was passed, and to repeal that clause; to issue $500,000,000 of legal tender notes, and authorize "a billion" of bonds at 6 per cent, which assets can be placed at par in a year. The word "billion" he twice repeats, and although it means a million multiplied by itself—a "million of millions"—he probably means a thousand millions. This proposition, then, as compared with Mr. CHASE's, is as follows:

	Notes.	Bonds.	Interest.
Mr. Chase.....	$250,000,000	$900,000,000	7 3/10
Mr. Stevens.....	500,000,000	1,000,000,000	6

This demand of Mr. STEVENS is for a sum one thrid of the British debt. That of Mr. CHASE is for a sum that bears an annual cost equal to half that of the British debt; and he asks that he shall not be limited, but shall have the right to make private bargains with his friends for it. There were probably never two financial state papers published which can command less confidence than those of the two highest financial authorities of the present government. The alternative remains between impossible loans and a swelling flood of paper, on the moving current of which the property of the country is drifting with accelerated pace to bankruptcy, which means anarchy. The following table shows the price of government securities, as compared with gold:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

		6's, 1861. Reg.	6's, 1861. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	6 p. c. certif. 1 year.	Gold.	August demand notes.
May	10,.....	103¼	103	94	104	99½	2¾	¼
"	17,.....	105	105	96	105	100¼	3	¼
"	23,.....	104¼	104¼	96	105	100¼	3¼	¼
"	31,.....	104¼	104¼	96	105	100	3¼	¼
June	7,.....	103	106	96	106¼	100¼	4¼	1
"	14,.....	103¾	107¼	97¼	106¼	100¼	6¾	3
"	26,.....	102¾	106¼	96¼	105¾	99¾	9	4¼
July	5,.....	100¼	100¼	95	102	98¼	10	5¼
"	12,.....	100	100¼	88	103	99	17	7¼
"	19,.....	98	98	85	101¼	97¼	19	8

		6's, 1861. Reg.	6's, 1861. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	6 p. c. certif. 1 year.	Gold.	August demand notes.
July	27,.....	99	99	86¼	103	98¼	17	6¼
August	2,.....	98½	98½	85½	102½	98½	15	5½
"	9,.....	99	100	85½	103½	100	12½	5½
"	16,.....	100⅝	100⅞	90	100	100	15	7½
"	23.....	101	101	90	104	99⅝	15½	8
"	30.....	101½	101½	90	104½	100	16½	8½
Sept.	6.....	99⅝	99⅝	88½	103½	99	18⅝	8
"	13.....	99⅝	99⅝	88½	103	98½	19½	8⅝
"	20.....	102	102	90	104½	99	17	2½
	26.....	101½	101⅝	90½	104½	99⅝	20⅝	16½
October	4.....	104½	104½	94	105½	94	19½	22⅝
"	11.....	104	104	92½	105	99⅝	27½	23⅝
"	18.....	104	104	92½	106	99½	32	29
"	25.....	103	103	93	105	99	31	27
Nov.	1.....	104	104½	93½	105½	99½	31½	26½
"	8.....	103½	103½	92½	103½	98	32½	26
"	15.....	103½	103½	91½	104	98	32	26½
"	23.....	103½	103½	91	104	98	30	24½
"	30.....	101½	103⅝	91	103½	97⅝	30	24½
Dec.	6.....	101	104	91½	104	97½	31	25
"	13.....	99½	104	91⅝	103⅝	97	31	26½
"	20.....	97	103½	94	101½	95⅝	32	27½
"	27.. ...	96½	102½	91½	101½	95⅝	32	29

The importations at the port of New York for the month of November, showed a continued decline as compared with the two previous months, mostly for articles entered for consumption, since the cost of importation, in the rise of freights and exchange, increased faster than the sale prices. There is, as compared with former years, doubtless a great want of goods among consumers; but the general aspect of affairs demands the most rigid economy. Hence the hesitation in buying, although there is also an inclination among dealers to hold goods for the rise which must take place in paper money. The imports were as follows:

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Entered for Consumption.	Entered for Warehouse.	Total.
January.....	$163,658	$2,552,050	$6,663,396	$3,141,725	$12,620,829
February.....	62,007	3,381,473	7,058,174	3,370,486	13,872,140
March	89,327	3,476,004	10,312,689	4,841,846	18,719,866
April.....	26,152	2,232,315	7,141,197	3,853,218	13,252,882
May.....	110,383	1,146,093	8,091,120	4,600,920	12,948,516
June	61,023	1,122,092	7,278,953	2,874,127	12,336,195
July.....	219,001	1,831,932	13,799,505	4,502,764	20,353,202
August	92,713	982.992	10,289,427	2 939,721	14,304,843
September.....	121.318	1,784,804	11,890,711	4,351,084	18,147,917
October.....	256,676	1,004,870	8,462,554	3,689,806	13,413,906
November.....	109,708	1,526,496	6,565,185	2,108,009	10,309,398
Total, 11 months.	$1,311,964	$21,341,121	$97,652,911	$41,273,706	$161,579,699
" 1861.....	86,734,888	27,779,670	49,911,475	38,725,841	153,131,869

The receipts of specie for the eleven months, as compared with last year, are very small. The receipts of dutiable goods were also small, and as a consequencee the duties for November were one-third less than in October. The exports for the month also show a declining tendency. The price of grain, which constitutes a large portion of the quantities sent away, were lower in England, ruling, in November, 30 cents per bushel for wheat less than in 1861. At the same time the rates of ex-

change remained with little fluctuation through November. There was consequently less disposition to ship, and the results were as follows:

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
January	$2,658,374	$27,193	$149,493	$12,053,477	$14,948,437
February	3,776,919	49,066	208,757	10,078,101	14,112,843
March	2,471,233	65,388	458,917	8,985,176	11,980,714
April	4,037,675	56,350	607,678	8,002,094	12,703,797
May	5,164,536	76,971	752,797	9,837,693	15,342,097
June	9,867,614	43,358	372,561	10,048,832	20,332,375
July	8,067,337	1,117,193	449,948	14,050,437	23,684,915
August	3,713,532	417,100	256,680	13,046,389	17,833,701
September	3,085,919	572,572	667,987	14,734,993	19,061,471
October	6,707,519	179,205	434,265	19,476,947	26,797,936
November	6,213,215	45,530	284,813	14,060,340	20,603,906
Total, 11 months.	$55,763,873	2,745,859	$4,548,488	$134,374,479	$197,432,192
" 1861	3,343,237	2,079,473	4,709,445	117,574,551	127,906,700

The nominal aggregate for the month, including specie, is very large—larger than in any previous November; but it will be borne in mind that this amount is not realized. It is the paper value here; to ascertain the real value 25 per cent must be deducted, since the inflation was 33 per cent in gold. Hence the value of produce exported was about ten and three-fourth millions, which nearly covers the face of the imports for the month, leaving a large sum (nearly $6,250,000) in specie for government wants, interest, etc., etc. The specie movement is as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1861. Received.	1861. Exported.	1862. Received.	1862. Exported.	1862. Gold in bank.	Price of gold.
Jan. 4...	.....	.....	.....	$442,147	$23,983,878	2 a 4 prem.
" 11...	$1,445,885	.....	$885,923	1,035,025	25,378,070	4 a 5 "
" 18...	1,446,219	.....	.....	547,703	26,120,859	4 a 4½ "
" 25...	1,246,029	$22,855	627,767	322,918	26,698,728	2 a 3½ "
Feb. 1...	1,514,154	289,669	.....	310,484	27,479,533	3½ a 3½ "
" 9...	1,052,818	115,698	854,000	976,235	28,196,666	3½ a 3¾ "
" 15...	1,056,426	117,101	614,146	1,156,154	28,114,148	4 a 4½ "
" 22...	.....	187,253	759,247	734,512	28,875,992	3 a 3½ "
March 1..	855,755	176,161	741,109	510,774	29,826,959	2 a 2½ "
" 8...	.....	.....	679,075	585,236	30,436,644	1⅝ a 2⅛ "
" 15...	815,524	123,316	677,058	477,335	30,773,050	2 a 1½ "
" 22...	.....	91,161	.....	540,968	32,023,390	1½ a 1½ "
" 29...	699,597	6,088	490,868	779,564	32,841,862	1½ a 1½ "
April 5...	996,445	628,708	581,292	673,826	33,764,382	1½ a 1 "
" 12...	1,110,231	323,906	.....	1,505,728	34,594,668	1⅛ a 2½ "
" 19...	.....	328,127	617,279	693,432	34,671,528	2 a 1½ "
" 26...	844,577	1,000	635,546	1,151,300	35,297,944	1½ a 1⅛ "
May 2...	.....	800	410,804	712,275	35,175,828	2⅛ a 3⅛ "
" 9...	868,600	27,695	484,019	1,574,166	32,239,868	3½ a 3½ "
" 17...	755,102	.....	604,682	1,093,031	30,280,697	3 a 3⅛ "
" 24...	1,913,355	.....	604,682	938,032	30,672,760	3⅛ a 3⅛ "
" 31...	2,282,137	590	224,911	881,452	31,397,284	3½ a 3⅛ "
June 7...	1,618,876	650	558,035	1,647,299	31,284,882	3⅛ a 4½ "
" 14...	617,361	18,976	352,391	1,990,327	31,162,048	4½ a 6½ "
" 21...	986,143	222,546	612,461	2,156,988	31,047,945	6 a 6½ "
" 28...	.....	2,070	393,212	3,094,101	30,832,626	7 a 9½ "
July 5...	811,268	2,200	.....	2,647,060	31,790,519	9 a 10 "
" 12..	.....	1,588	641,451	2,424,916	32,098,174	9½ a 17 "
" 19..	1,244,000	1,750	441,179	1,846,023	31,926,609	17 a 20 "

	1861.		1862.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Price of gold.
July 27...	.....	4,000	.....	784,537	33,064,575	16½ a 17 "
Aug. 2...	2,128,240	1,382	Golden Gate lost	748,528	34,022,490	14½ a 16 "
" 9...	.....	....	964,422	890,552	34,611,069	12½ a 13 "
" 16...	941,081	700	.....	700,431	35,301,778	14½ a 15 "
" 23...	1,176,434	1,040	1,089,111	919,825	35,538,486	15 a 15½ "
" 30...	757,629	9,280	.....	1,137,644	35,640,984	15 a 16½ "
Sept. 6...	1,100,693	5,120	807,563	551,097	36,138,928	16½ a 18¾ "
" 13...	....	69,859	.....	1,042,835	37,125,245	19 a 19½ "
" 20...	953,340	11,150	934,415	490,895	37,868,037	17 a 17½ "
" 27...	.....	.....	758,286	996,892	37,592,552	16 a 16½ "
Oct. 4...	937,776	7,100	.....	713,075	38,325,587	22½ a 22¾ "
" 11...	.....	2,011	807,616	2,255,513	39,263,086	23¾ a 24 "
" 18...	1,011,707	3,921	.....	1,714,551	38,759,256	33½ a 37½ "
" 25...	1,026,382	2,006	768,121	2,024,380	37,453,531	27 a 31¾ "
Nov. 1...	.....	2,981	.....	351,547	37,980,436	31 a 31½ "
" 8...	878,805	3,685	.....	711,607	38,794,768	32½ a 32¾ "
" 15...	875,730	32,905	708,731	1,894,708	39,348,947	31½ a 32 "
" 23...	.....	... ..	921,207	2,458,529	38,110,216	30 a 30½ "
" 30...	829,807	11,745	.....	797,360	37,949,086	29 a 29½ "
Dec. 6...	870,246	30,121	735,112	1,469,087	37,662,868	31¼ a 31¾ "
" 13...	.....	56,313	.....	874,296	36,708,754	31¾ a 31½ "
" 20...	979,005	493,614	699,962	999,438	35,554,336	23½ a 33¾ "
" 27...	822,058	312,965	Ariel.	286,880	35,780,807	31¾ a 32 "
Total..	38,379,574	4,207,776	24,882,846	59,403,618	.....	

The receipts of specie from San Francisco continue to be much less than for the corresponding time last year, and this decline is a consequence of the state of the markets for goods here, which bear paper prices and sell less readily. On the other hand, the export of specie has continued more rapid than last year. At the close of November a reaction in the price of gold in some degree checked the current towards the city, and the amount in bank declined under the paying drain, while the price again rose. The wants of the general government to meet its interest January 1, were considerable, and added to this was the maturity of $2,883,364 of 6 per cent stock, payment of which was made in specie. It is no doubt the case that the government ought to pay its stock in specie, because it had gold for it originally; and if the holder of the stock make a profit of $750,000, by getting equal to gold, it is not their fault, but that of the department which brought about such a state of affairs. When the loan was contracted gold was paid into the Treasury as the only constitutional currency—a currency common to the whole world. If, for certain political purposes, the Treasury department discarded gold and forced paper upon the people for a currency, it cannot thereby repudiate one quarter of a just debt. When paper money is inaugurated and the government contracts a loan in paper, the lenders are supposed to know what they are about. They can only get paper back, and must take their chance of its future value, which is likely to be little enough.

The decline in the amount of domestic exports for the month of November grew out of the heavy state of the exchange market. Commercial bills were with difficulty negotiated at the rates of October, and at the same time prices of American produce were lower in England, affording less margin for shipment, even with the high nominal rate of bills, which have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Feb. 1,	113 a 113¼	5.10 a 4.95	42¼ a 43¼	43¼ a 43¼	37 a 38¼	75¼ a 76¼
" 15,	115 a 115½	4 97½ a 4.90	42⅝ a 43½	43⅝ a 44	37⅝ a 38½	76½ a 77
Mar 1,	112 a 113	5.05 a 5.00	42½ a 43	42⅝ a 43	37 a 37⅝	75½ a 75
" 15,	112½ a 112½	5.07½ a 5.03⅛	42½ a 43	42½ a 43⅛	36⅛ a 37⅛	74⅛ a 75⅛
" 22,	111 a 112½	5.08⅛ a 5.00⅛	42 a 42½	42½ a 42⅝	36⅛ a 37½	74 a 74½
" 29,	111 a 112	5.10 a 5.05	42 a 42½	42½ a 42⅞	36⅛ a 37½	74 a 74½
Apr. 5,	111½ a 112½	5.07½ a 5.02½	42½ a 42⅝	42½ a 42⅝	36½ a 37½	74½ a 75
" 12,	111⅝ a 112½	5.10 a 5.03½	42 a 42½	42½ a 42⅝	36⅛ a 37½	74½ a 74⅝
" 19,	111½ a 112½	5.10 a 5.03⅛	41⅞ a 42½	42½ a 42⅝	36⅛ a 37½	74 a 74½
" 26,	111½ a 112½	5.02½ a 5.07½	42½ a 42½	42½ a 42⅝	36⅛ a 37⅛	74½ a 74⅝
May 2,	112½ a 113½	4 97½ a 5.02½	42½ a 42⅝	42⅝ a 47⅛	37 a 37½	74½ a 74⅝
" 10,	113 a 114	4.91½ a 5.02½	42½ a 43	42⅝ a 43½	37½ a 37½	75 a 75½
" 17,	113 a 114	4.96½ a 5.00	42⅝ a 43	42½ a 43½	37⅛ a 38	75 a 75⅝
" 24,	114½ a 115	4.92½ a 5.00	42⅝ a 43	43 a 43½	37½ a 38	75½ a 75½
" 31,	114 a 114⅝	4.95½ a 4.91½	42½ a 43½	43½ a 43½	37½ a 38½	75⅝ a 76
June 7,	114 a 115	4 95 a 4.91	43 a 43½	43½ a 43½	37⅝ a 38½	75⅝ a 76
" 14,	117½ a 118	4 75 a 4 82	43⅝ a 44½	44½ a 45	39 a 39½	76½ a 77½
" 26,	120½ a 121	4 70 a 4 66	44½ a 45	45 a 45½	40 a 40½	78 a 78⅝
July 5,	120 a 122	4.70 a 4 62½	55½ a 45½	45 a 45½	45 a 45½	79 a 79½
" 12,	127 a 129	4.33½ a 4.31½	48 a 49	48 a 49	42½ a 43½	84½ a 85½
" 19,	128½ a 131	4.37½ a 4.32½	48½ a 49	48½ a 49	43 a 44	86½ a 87½
" 27,	126 a 129	4.45 a 4.35	47½ a 48½	48 a 48½	41½ a 42½	85½ a 86½
Aug. 2,	125 a 127	4.52 a 4.55	47⅝ a 48½	47⅝ a 48½	41⅝ a 42	82 a 83
" 9,	124 a 126	4 55 a 4.47½	47 a 47½	47½ a 47½	41 a 42	82 a 82½
" 16,	126½ a 127½	4.45 a 4.40	47½ a 47⅝	47½ a 48	42 a 42½	83 a 83½
" 23,	126⅝ a 128	4.45 a 4.40	47½ a 47⅝	47½ a 48	41⅞ a 41½	82½ a 83½
" 30,	126⅝ a 127⅝	4.45 a 4.40	47½ a 47⅝	47½ a 48	42 a 42½	83½ a 84
Sept. 6,	128⅝ a 130	4.36½ a 4.32½	48½ a 49	48⅝ a 49½	42½ a 43	85 a 85½
" 13,	126½ a 131	4.36½ a 4.30	48⅝ a 49½	49 a 49½	42½ a 43½	85⅝ a 86½
" 20,	128½ a 129½	4.42 a 4.35	48½ a 48⅝	48½ a 48⅝	42½ a 42⅝	85 a 85½
" 27,	128½ a 129½	4.40 a 4.32	48½ a 49	48⅝ a 49	42½ a 43	85½ a 86
Oct. 4,	134½ a 135½	4.20 a 4.15	50½ a 51⅝	50½ a 51	44½ a 45	88 a 89
" 11,	137½ a 142½	4.12 a 4.00	51⅛ a 53	52½ a 53½	46 a 47	92 a 94
" 18,	148 a 152	4.90 a 3.90	53 a 52	52 a 53	46 a 47	91 a 93
" 25,	143 a 145½	3.90 a 3 85	54½ a 55	54½ a 55	48 a 47½	95½ a 96½
Nov. 1,	143½ a 145⅝	3.95 a 3.86½	54½ a 55	54⅝ a 55½	47½ a 48½	97 a 97⅝
" 8,	145½ a 147	3.87½ a 3.82½	55½ a 56⅝	55½ a 56	48½ a 48½	97 a 97⅝
" 15,	145½ a 145⅝	3.87½ a 3.82½	55½ a 55⅝	55½ a 56	48 a 48⅝	97 a 97⅝
" 23,	143½ a 144⅝	3.97½ a 3.90	54½ a 55	54½ a 55½	47⅝ a 48½	96½ a 96⅝
" 30,	141 a 142	4.00 a 3.92	53½ a 54	54 a 54½	47 a 48	95 a 96
Dec. 6,	144½ a 1473	3.90 a 3.82	54⅝ a 55⅝	55½ a 56	48½ a 48⅝	96 a 97
" 13,	144½ a 146	3.92½ a 3.80	54⅝ a 55½	55 a 55½	48½ a 49	96½ a 96
" 20,	144½ a 146	3.90 a 3.85	54½ a 54½	54⅝ a 55½	48½ a 49	96½ a 97½
" 27,	146½ a 147½	3.87½ a 3.80	55½ a 56½	55⅝ a 56½	48⅝ a 49½	97 a 98

There was a gradual decline in the importations and the remittances of money to Europe, which checked the demand for bills, and they became rather weak; but the outward current of specie was not checked. The movement was aided by the efforts to get the price of gold down during the early part of November, by selling for future deliveries at lower rates. The gold being wanted for shipment was readily taken by shippers, who sent it forward when delivered, profiting at the expense of the speculators for the fall.

The harvests of England and Western Europe are not of the best descriptions, but the supply of old grain on hand is such as to preclude high prices for the present, while the large importations of cotton, at high prices, from India cause an unusual demand for the precious metals for that destination, and by so doing accelerate the drain from the United States, ahd therefore assist to depreciate the currency here.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

THE following comparative tables, showing the trade and commerce of New Orleans, form an important part of the history of the times. One can scarcely estimate the loss our country has suffered by this war. We get glimpses of the truth in such figures as these:

STATEMENT OF COTTON.

Stock on hand 1st September, 1861.....bales		10,113
Arrived since taking stock.....	150	
Arrived previously.....	38,730	
Total receipts for 12 months.....	38,880	
Made from waste and damaged cotton, samples, etc.	1,000—39,880	
		49,998
Exported since taking stock.....	382	
Exported previously.....	27,296	
Total exports 12 months.....	27,678	
Burnt in presses and on shipboard April 24th, about	22,200—49,878	
Stock on hand 1st September 1862.....		120

STATEMENT OF TOBACCO.

Stock on hand 1st September, 1861.....hhds.		15,121
Arrived since taking stock.....	None.	
Arrived previously.....	1,063	
Total receipts for 12 months	——	1,063
		16,184
Exported since taking stock.....	187	
Exported previously.....	2,037	
Total exports for 12 months.....	2,224	
Taken for the consumption of city and neighborhood, and broke up for baling.....	1,249—	3,473
Stock on hand 1st September, 1862.....		2,711

Inspections from Sept. 1, 1861, *to Aug.* 31, 1862.

Hays and Johnson.....hhds.	269
Saufley.....	257
P. A. Hardy.....	15
A. M. Summers.....	278
Turner and Mars.....	229
Total.....	1,048

Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks for ten years, from 1st Sept. each year.

	Cotton—bales.			Tobacco—hhds.		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stock.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stock.
1861–62..	38,880	27,678	120	1,063	2,224	12,711
1860–61..	1,849,312	1,915,852	10,118	34,892	39,806	15,121
1859–60..	2,255,448	2,214,296	73,934	80,955	82,689	20,635
1858–59..	1,774,298	1,777,171	26,022	75,925	79,974	28,399
1857–58..	1,678,616	1,659,707	30,230	87,141	72,215	28,410
1856–57..	1,513,247	1,516,921	7,321	55,067	50,181	13,711
1855–56..	1,759,293	1,795,023	6,995	56,090	59,074	9,125
1854–55..	1,284,768	1,279,264	39,425	53,348	64,100	12,653
1853–54..	1,440,779	1,429,180	24,121	48,905	53,043	24,045
1852–53..	1,684,864	1,644,981	10,622	75,010	64,075	29,166

COFFEE, SUGAR, AND SALT.

Direct imports for 3 years, from Sept. 1 to Aug. 31.

	1861–62.	1860–61.	1859–60.
Coffee—Cuba, etc.....bags	360	1,376	4,590
" Rio.....	3,034	282,718	278,956
Sugar—Cuba.....bxs. and bbls.	....	13,136	16,948
" " .....hhds.	....	1,687	3,045
" Brazil, etc....bxs. and bags	....	.....	332
Molasses—Cuba.....hhds. and tcs.	....	691	17,271
" " .....bbls.	....	.....	5,526
Salt—Liverpool.....sacks	58,516	593,661	852,324
" Turks Islands, etc.....bush.	20,745	27,320	368,620

IMPORTS OF SPECIE.

For 12 years, from 1st September to 31st August.

1861–62.....	$10,000	1855–56.....	$4,913,540
1860–61.....	14,627,375	1854–55.....	3,746,036
1859–60.....	8,444,857	1853–54.....	6,967,056
1858–59.....	15,627,016	1852–53.....	7,865,226
1857–58.....	13,268,013	1851–52.....	6,278,523
1856–57.....	6,500,015	1850–51.....	7,937,119

EXPORTS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO FOR THREE YEARS.

Commencing September 1 and ending August 31.

COTTON.

To—	1861–62.	1860–61.	1859–60.
Liverpool.....bales	1,312	1,074,131	1,348,163
London.....	....	153	107
Glasgow, Greenock, etc.....	....	32,767	16,437
Cowes, Falmouth, etc.....	....	10,034	19,147
Queenstown, Cork, etc.....	....	42,263	43,112
Havre.....	472	384,938	303,157
Bordeaux.....	....	3,704	2,395
Marseilles.....	....	283	3,735
Nantz, Cette, and Rouen.....	....	....	4,004
Amsterdam.....	....	3,411	2,949

To—	1861–62.	1860–61.	1859–60.
Rotterdam and Ghent.....	....	1,700	5,205
Bremen.....	....	65,073	60,999
Antwerp.....	....	12,343	16,362
Hamburg.....	....	5,551	9,079
Gottenburg and Stockholm....	....	10,426	13,522
Spain, Gibraltar, etc.....	21,571	72,471	50,317
Mexico, etc.....	....	6,269	17,725
Genoa, Trieste, etc.....	....	34,618	61,228
St. Petersburg, etc.....	....	23,538	28,019
New York	4,116	29,539	62,936
Boston.....	109	94,307	131,648
Providence, R. I.....	....	4,897	5,717
Philadelphia.....	98	855	5,257
Baltimore.....	....	100	1,247
Other coastwise ports.....	....	2,481	1,829
Total.....	27,678	1,915,852	2,214,296

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain.....	1,312	1,159,348	1,426,966
France.....	472	388,925	313,291
North of Europe	....	122,042	136,135
South of Europe, Mexico, etc..	21,571	113,358	129,270
Coastwise.....	4,323	132,173	208,634
Total.....	27,678	1,915,852	2,214,296

TOBACCO.

To—	1861–62.	1860–61.	1859–60.
Liverpool.....hhds.	....	1,436	8,844
London.....	....	3,017	6,308
Cowes, Falmouth, etc.....	....	3,011	2,013
Havre.....	100	3,179	2,010
Bordeaux	....	328	3,212
Marseilles	....	1,037	3,197
Amsterdam.....	....	....	1,143
Rotterdam and Ghent.....	....	406	1,735
Bremen.....	536	5,084	13,694
Antwerp, etc.....	....	1,067	4,735
Hamburg.....	....	20	64
Gottenburg and Stockholm....	....	....	1,951
Spain, Gibraltar, etc.....	1,248	9,560	10,848
Genoa, Trieste, etc.....	....	7,539	8,847
Other foreign ports	....	1,816	4,640
New York.....	303	1,996	7,392
Boston.....	....	213	1,310
Philadelphia.....	....	98	261
Baltimore.....	37	....	140
Other coastwise ports	....	26	345
Total.....	2,224	39,806	82,689

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain	....	7,464	17,165
France	100	4,544	8,419
North of Europe	536	6,577	23,322
South of Europe	1,248	18,915	24,335
Coastwise	340	2,306	9,448
Total	2,224	39,806	82,689

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKY, AND CORN.

From September 1 to August 31.

	1860–61.		1860–61.
To New York—		Beef.....bbls.	4,378
Flour.....bbls.	4,976	Whisky.....	27,290
Pork.....	21	Corn.....sacks	767,288
Bacon.....casks	122	To Great Britain—	
Lard.....kegs	7,823	Flour.....bbls.	186,278
Beef.....bbls.	963	Pork.....	25
Lead.....pigs	5,850	Lard.....kegs	62,526
Whisky.....bbls.	903	Beef.....bbls.	775
Corn.....sacks	9,936	Corn.....sacks	695,329
To Boston—		To Cuba—	
Flour.....bbls.	3,375	Flour.....bbls.	901
Lard.....kegs	1,094	Pork.....	637
Beef.....bbls.	344	Bacon.....casks	1,624
Lead.....pigs	13,909	Lard.....kegs	133,716
Whisky.....bbls.	743	Beef.....bbls.	211
Corn.....sacks	10,193	Whisky.....	175
To Philadelphia—		Corn.....sacks	48,400
Flour.....bbls.	2	To other foreign ports—	
Whisky.....	122	Flour.....bbls.	47,817
To Baltimore—		Pork.....	2,263
Whisky.....bbls.	40	Bacon.....casks	202
To other United States ports—		Lard.....kegs	25,969
Flour.....bbls.	205,544	Beef.....bbls.	163
Pork.....	33,017	Lead.....pigs	51
Bacon.....casks	22,743	Whisky.....bbls.	219
Lard.....kegs	32,846	Corn.....sacks	14,344

EXPORTS OF SUGAR & MOLASSES FOR TWO YEARS, (UP THE RIVER EXCEPTED.)

From September 1 to August 31.

	1861–62.			
	Sugar.		Molasses.	
To—	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York	66,993	4,471	...	13,352
Philadelphia	3,080	119	...	1,169
Boston	4,461	2	...	1,424
Baltimore	1,496	178	...	609
Mobile	10,287	....	...	62,149
Apalachicola and Pensacola	55	....	...	175
Other ports	....	3	...	....
Total	86,372	4,773	...	78,878

To—	1860–61. Sugar. Hhds.	Sugar. Bbls.	Molasses. Hhds.	Molasses. Bbls.
New York	21,436	607	...	40,088
Philadelphia	1,876	7	...	4,281
Charleston	2,491	2	...	7,765
Savannah	158	....	...	328
Providence and Bristol, R. I.	4	1	...	2,628
Boston	151	4	185	10,344
Baltimore	2,870	90	...	5,752
Norfolk, Richmond, Petersburg	2,966	....	...	3,343
Mobile	7,225	1,251	...	30,726
Apalachicola and Pensacola	1,355	2,357	...	7,933
Other ports	1,631	405	...	6,324
Total	42,163	4,724	185	122,512

TOTAL EXPORTS TO ALL PORTS IN 1860–61.

Flour .....bbls.	448,893	Beef .....bbls	6,834
Pork	35,963	Lead .....pigs	19,810
Bacon .....casks	24,691	Whisky .....bbls.	29,492
Lard .....kegs	263,974	Corn .....sacks	1,545,490

IMPORTS INTO NEW ORLEANS, FROM THE INTERIOR, FOR FOUR YEARS.

From September 1 to August 31, in each year.

	1861–62.	1860–61.	1859–60.
Alcohol .....bbls.	307	3,193	.....
Apples	24,127	74,276	67,416
Bacon .....asst. casks, etc.	4,073	38,188	45,015
" .....bbls. and bxs.	681	6,344	5,987
" hams .....hhds.	3,420	25,636	37,814
" in bulk .....lbs.	784,399	.....	39,000
Bagging .....pieces	1,223	8,554	21,427
Bale rope .....coils	2,455	49,083	125,429
Beans .....bbls.	2,098	10,127	8,889
Butter .....kegs	5,036	22,447	38,345
" .....bbls.	322	354	1,506
Bran .....sacks	65,746	230,916	274,217
Beef .....bbls. and tcs.	13,622	23,389	44,934
" dried .....lbs.	.....	6,000	93,726
Cotton—La. and Miss....bales	34,594	1,327,849	1,588,947
Lake	.....	3,511	3,481
N. Ala. and Tenn...	3,585	249,150	371,658
Arkansas	701	168,089	163,339
Montgomery	.....	11,551	28,473
Mobile	.....	48,270	34,179
Florida	.....	13,279	16,335
Texas	.....	30,613	49,096
Corn in ears .....bbls.	22,216	122,644	36,092
" shelled .....sacks	315,652	3,383,911	1,722,039
Cotton seed	258,750	207,555	....

	1861–62.	1860–61	1859–60.
Cheese.....boxes	3,911	59,429	95,305
Candles.....	5,265	46,165	110,405
Coal, Western.....bbls.	.....	1,628,000	2,900,000
Dried apples, etc.....	1,262	1,692	70
Flaxseed.....tcs.	16	459	1,121
Flour.....bbls.	281,645	1,009,201	974,340
Feathers.....bags	51	373	936
Glassware.....boxes	383	22,148	68,879
Hemp.....bales	.....	1,602	4,883
Hides.....No.	11,865	93,786	163,568
Hay .....bales	40,578	152,173	151,659
Iron, pig.....tons	59	215	643
Leather .....bdls.	10,340	9,768	6,115
Lard.....tcs. and bbls.	6,069	39,633	65,784
" .....kegs	4,290	61,237	90,699
Lime, Western.....bbls.	27,612	40,272	33,143
Lead.....pigs	1,967	25,510	80,964
" bar.....kegs	36	1,298	1,658
Molasses.....bbls.	401,404	313,260	313,840
Oats.....bbls. and sks.	35,348	552,738	659,550
Onions.....bbls.	2,419	26,857	26,401
Oil, linseed	5	399	1,020
" castor.....	50	389	571
" lard	339	7,772	9,333
Pickles.....kegs and bbls.	121	151	332
Potatoes.....bbls.	68,269	257,190	207,698
Pork.....tcs. and bbls.	11,452	213,983	216,523
" .....boxes	51	.....	71
" .....hhds.	370	1,734	1,874
" in bulk.....lbs.	610,219	2,612,776	3,803,500
Porter and ale.....bbls.	361	19,515	20,940
Packing yarn.....reels	10	731	3,748
Rice.....casks	23,476	4,761	.....
Rosin .....bbls.	277	74,558	.....
Skins, deer.....packs	53	261	1,542
Shot.....kegs	4	2,890	4,001
Spirits turpentine.....bbls.	2,716	13,425	.....
Sugar .....hhds.	225,356	174,637	195,185
" .....bbls.	7,907	5,976	4,808
Soap.....boxes	8,427	9,201	12,202
Shingles.....M.	1,475	8,207	7,000
Staves.....	9	7,635	10,173
Tallow.....bbls.	792	608	1,025
Tobacco, leaf .....hhds.	1,063	34,892	80,955
" chew.....boxes	6,366	8,864	14,544
" .....bales	315	134	274
Twine.....bdls.	108	2,572	3,508
Wool.....bags	3,855	2,171	.....
Whisky.....bbls.	1,760	93,352	185,042
Wheat .....bbls. and sacks	36,411	71,678	13,116

VALUE OF PRODUCE OF THE INTERIOR.

A table showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior, during the year ending 31st August, 1862, with their total value:

		Amount.	Value.
Alcohol	bbls.	307	$18,420
Apples		24,127	168,889
Bacon, assorted	hhds. and casks	4,073	651,680
" assorted	boxes	681	40,860
" hams	hhds. and tcs.	3,420	581,400
" in bulk	lbs.	784,399	219,631
Bagging	pieces	1,223	19,262
Bale rope	coils	2,455	38,347
Beans	bbls.	2,098	25,176
Butter	kegs and firkins	5,036	201,440
"	bbls.	322	37,030
Bran	sacks	65,746	164,365
Beef	bbls.	6,561	164,275
"	tcs.	7,061	211,830
Cotton	bales	38,880	1,769,040
Corn, in ear	bbls.	22,216	44,432
" shelled	sacks	315,652	899,608
Cotton seed		258,750	142,312
Cheese	boxes	3,941	39,410
Candles		5,265	52,650
Dried apples and peaches	bbls.	1,262	15,144
Feathers	bags	51	1,275
Flaxseed	tcs.	16	400
Flour	bbls.	281,645	3,661,385
Glassware	pkgs.	383	1,915
Hides	No.	11,885	35,595
Hay	bales	40,578	426,069
Iron, pig	tons	59	2,360
Lard	bbls. and tcs.	6,069	394,485
"	kegs	4,290	77,220
Leather	bdls.	10,340	775,500
Lime, Western	bbls.	27,612	82,836
Lead	pigs	1,967	15,736
"	kegs and boxes	36	720
Molasses (estimated crop)	galls.	36,982,505	6,703,079
Oats	sacks	45,348	174,589
Onions	bbls.	2,419	16,933
Oil, linseed		5	400
" castor		50	10,000
" lard		339	23,730
Potatoes		68,269	682,690
Pork	tcs. and bbls.	11,452	458,080
"	boxes	51	4,080
"	hhds.	370	74,000
" in bulk	lbs.	610,219	122,043
Porter and ale	bbls.	361	3,610
Packing yarn	reels	10	200

	Amount.	Value.
Rice.....casks	23,476	985,992
Rosin.....bbls.	277	1,108
Rum.....	5,333	149,324
Skins, deer.....packs	53	1,060
Shot .....kegs	4	100
Soap.....boxes	8,427	67,416
Spirits turpentine.....bbls.	2,716	38,024
Staves.....M.	9	585
Shingles.....	1,475	8,850
Sugar (estimated crop).....hhds.	459,410	25,092,974
Spanish moss.....bales	500	10,000
Tallow.....bbls.	792	27,720
Tobacco, leaf.....hhds.	1,003	200,600
" strips.....	60	24,000
" chewing..kegs and boxes	6,366	127,320
Twine.....bdls. and boxes	108	1,620
Wool.....bags	3,855	231,300
Whisky.....bbls.	1,760	70,400
Wheat.....sacks	36,411	218,466
Other various articles—estimated at.....		5,000,000
Total value		$51,510,990
" in 1860–61.....		155,863,564
" in 1859–60.....		185,211,254
" in 1858–59.....		172,952,664
" in 1857–58.....		167,155,546

CANALS OF NEW YORK—TIDE WATER RECEIPTS OF PRODUCE.

The quantity of flour, wheat, corn and barley, left at tide water, during the fourth week in November, in the years 1861 and 1862, was as follows:

	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.	Barley, bush.
1861.....	66,976	1,886,146	756,796	133,108
1862.....	69,856	1,384,726	686,300	156,245
	Inc. 2,886	Dec. 501,420	Dec. 80,496	Inc. 23,137

The aggregate quantity of the same articles left at tide water from the commencement of navigation to the 30th November, inclusive, during the years 1861 and 1862, was as follows:

	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.	Barley, bush.
1861.....	1,414,834	28,749,060	22,157,221	1,036,115
1862.....	1,628,727	31,126,496	21,531,470	1,969,619
	Inc. 213,893	Inc. 2,377,436	Dec. 625,751	Dec. 66,466

By reducing the wheat to flour, the quantity of the latter left at tide water this year, compared with the corresponding period last year, shows an increase of 680,680 bbls. flour.

The following comparative table shows the quantity of some of the principal articles of produce left at tide water from the commencement of navigation to the 30th of November, inclusive, in the years indicated:

Canals opened—	1860. April 25.	1861. May 1.	1862. May 1.
Flour.....bbls.	1,133,998	1,414,833	1,622,727
Wheat.....bush.	17,002,883	28,749,060	31,126,496
Corn.....	14,079,679	22,157,221	21,531,470
Barley.....	2,900,058	2,036,115	1,969,649
Oats.....	6,414,250	5,332,026	5,283,166
Rye.....	320,514	740,023	742,477
Beef.....bbls.	11,295	19,442	51,239
Pork.....	7,487	9,147	168,810
Bacon.....lb.	458,464	626,200	5,925,196
Butter.....	2,369,520	3,532,658	5,305,021
Lard.....	1,005,985	1,013,593	9,214,098
Cheese.....	11,921,221	9,496,260	8,220,881
Wool.....	2,035,679	1,720,183	1,796,658

We have no returns from the Waterford office for the fourth week in November. The receipts of Barley at that point for the week is estimated at 40,000 bushels.—*Albany Argus.*

EVIDENCE IN A CLAIM FOR DRAWBACK.

The following is the evidence to be made to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue when a claim for drawback has been made:

First. The certificate of the Collector of Internal Revenue that the internal revenue tax has been paid, which certificate shall, when possible, particularly describe the goods by their marks or otherwise, their quantity, the rate of tax, whether specific or ad valorem, the amount of duty imposed, and the name of the manufacturer or producer who paid the same.

Second. The certificate of the Collector or other competent officer of the customs, to the effect that the goods upon which the drawbacks is claimed have been exported, and the name of the exporter.

Third. The affidavit of the party making the claim, or other competent person setting forth that the goods upon which the claim for drawback is made. are the identical goods upon which the internal revenue tax has been paid as certified by the Collector of Internal Revenue, that the same goods have been exported at the time and in the manner stated by the collector of the customs, and also the amount of the drawback claimed, and that the party making the claim is justly entitled thereto. This affidavit must be executed before a notary public, or magistrate having a seat; or if executed before a justice of the peace, then it must a certificate from a proper officer that such person is duly authorized to administer oaths.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

We bring down our New York week'ly bank returns to the close of the present year. The principal change the past month will be found to be in the great decrease of specie—there being a loss of nearly $4,000,000 since the 15th of November. It will also be seen that the Boston and Philadelphia banks report less specie than a month ago. The continued large export is begining thus to show itself. What has reached the city from the country has heretofore made good the loss. The year closes, too, with a decrease in the line of loans and discounts; but this is so mixed up with the short loan to government, that nothing very definite or exact can be made out of the weekly averages. The other changes are unimportant:

CITY WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.

New York Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1862, $69,493,577; *Jan.*, 1861, $69,890,475.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 4,.....	$154,415,826	$23,983,878	$8,586,186	$111,789,283	$100,642,429
" 11,.....	152,088,012	25,373,070	8,121,512	113,889,762	105,634,811
" 18,.....	149,081,433	26,120,859	7,369,028	113,327,160	107,732,780
" 25, ...	145,767,680	26,698728	6,828,017	110,874,786	100,001,959
February 1,.....	144,675,778	27,479,583	6,404,951	112,057,003	93,791,629
" 8,.....	143,803,890	28,196,666	6,077,417	110,637,557	113,216,297
" 15,.....	141,994,192	28,114,148	5,762,506	110,430,475	105,102,177
" 22,.....	139,950,958	28,875,992	5,489,496	109,079,076	111,346,066
March 1,.....	137,674,238	29,826,959	5,363,944	107,974,499	109,854,823
" 8,.....	133,055,148	30,436,644	5,869,206	103,715,728	113,512,576
" 15,.....	130,622,776	30,773,050	5,904,866	100,296,704	118,957,978
" 22,.....	127,615,806	32,023,390	6,260,309	97,601,279	115,376,381
" 29,.....	125,021,630	32,841,802	6,758,313	94,428,071	106,973,432
April 5,.....	124,477,484	33,764,382	7,699,641	94,082,625	111,336,384
" 12,.....	123,412,491	34,594,668	8,004,848	93,759,063	114,788,013
" 19,.....	123,070,263	34,671,528	8,064,663	95,179,340	113,529,377
" 26,.....	125,086,825	35,297,944	8,118,571	101,897,435	124,396,733
May 3,.....	133,406,418	35,175,828	8,482,782	109,634,535	140,952,471
" 10,.....	138,948,211	32,239,868	8,830,321	115,559,206	181,113,537
" 17,.....	142,290,782	30,280,697	8,727,328	120,003,929	167,390,055
" 24,.....	142,950,149	30,672,760	8,592,676	122,602,864	142,828,565
" 31,.....	142,671,414	31,397,284	8,535,149	125,434,755	136,893,373
June 7,.....	142,318,381	31,248,882	8,813,603	125,566,961	148,123,103
" 14,.....	144,014,350	31,162,048	8,814,322	125,643,375	165,521,454
" 21,.....	146,839.762	31,047,945	8,849,183	126,684,422	168,059,995
" 28,.....	148,346,422	30,832,626	8,910,344	127,860,708	154,890,447
July 5, ...	148,643,718	31,790,519	9,270,815	127,496,534	149,748,928
" 12,.....	147,997,436	32,098,174	9,212,397	127,538,055	167,789,726
" 19,.....	148,827,423	31,926,609	9,155,301	129,485,977	161,066,594
" 26,.....	149,768,293	33,064,575	9,244,953	132,427,178	162,650,811
August 2,.....	150,517,844	34,022,490	9,311,868	137,112,937	149,167,638
" 9,.....	151,190,203	34,611,069	9,221,504	139,544,680	139,926 277
" 16,.....	152,828,731	35,301,778	9,287,206	142,084,051	139,796,908
" 23,.....	154,855,704	35,588,486	9,356,635	143,347,841	147,659,087
" 30,.....	158,278,552	35,640,982	9,454,806	141,971,741	150,875,167
Sept. 6,.....	158,435,859	36,138,928	9,645,965	142,663,036	154,074,880
" 13,.....	157,828,513	37,125,245	9,719,126	144,991,062	155,813,245

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net deposits.	Clearings.
Sept. 20,.....	158,299,288	37,863,037	9,789,060	148,680,453	179,681,651
" 27,.....	160,161,046	37,592,551	9,800,723	153,291,851	196,879,068
Oct. 4,.....	165,057,113	38,325,587	9,900,112	157,944,771	239,013,452
" 11,.....	169,675,009	39,263,086	9,880,050	162,965,264	243,083,030
" 18,.....	172,512,085	38,759,256	9,907,529	164,337,458	255,444,122
" 25,.....	174,879,346	37,453,531	9,878,240	164,497,972	245,940,203
Nov. 1,.....	176,847,576	37,980,436	9,848,267	167,435,267	213,246,542
" 8,.....	176,700,515	38,794,768	9,732,860	165,959,654	214,294,818
" 15,.....	178,786,683	39,348,947	9,840,991	164,066,604	234,494,032
" 22,.....	176,589,397	38,110,216	9,804,026	157,278,663	218,810,769
" 29,.....	172,962,294	37,949,056	9,816,801	158,998,715	173,809,789
Dec. 6,.....	171,488,587	37,662,868	9,924,818	153,602,777	232,491,673
" 13,.....	172,933,946	36,708,754	9,929,544	154,690,666	212,515,274
" 20,.....	173,853,596	35,554,336	9,889,629	154,824,502	200,356,965
" 27,.....	173,644,660	35,780,807	9,858,369	155,193,229	166,111,790

BOSTON BANK RETURNS.

While the New York banks have during the past six weeks been reducing their line of loans and discounts, the Boston banks have increased theirs from $72,218,500 on November 3d, to $77,060,000 December 22d, being an increase of nearly $5,000,000. There are no other changes of importance. We give the returns this month for the whole year:

Boston Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1861, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 6,...	$65,612,997	$8,920,486	$6,451,587	$27,093,839	$9,187,924	$8,701,873
" 13,...	64,704,039	8,580,607	6,612,512	25,642,994	9,634,227	8,805,255
" 20,...	64,409,585	8,585,277	6,549,871	25,441,327	9,547,319	9,018,388
" 27,...	63,025,191	8,562,175	6,284,268	24,030,776	9,593,545	8,727,348
Feb 3, ..	62,628,793	8,529,483	6,260,299	23,500,321	9,727,783	8,766,415
" 10,...	62,340,600	8,514,600	6,616,000	22,784,700	9,892,600	8,965,500
" 17,...	62,587,788	8,410,890	6,469,309	22,034,794	9,653,725	8,315,887
" 24,...	62,053,640	8,341,588	6,580,205	21,515,228	9,625,869	8,644,360
Mar. 3,...	61,678,500	8,364,500	6,318,700	21,208,500	9,681,500	8,982,600
" 10,...	61,834,500	8,409,535	6,693,139	20,740,208	9,906,110	8,450,721
" 17,...	61,747,000	8,471,000	6,364,800	20,554,000	9,790,000	7,981,000
" 24,...	61,655,420	8,441,058	6,219,512	20,326,087	9,715,256	7,669,531
" 31,...	61,360,789	8,441,196	5,908,272	19,975,018	9,434,782	6,978,527
Apr. 7,...	61,208,974	8,674,170	6,557,152	21,014,000	9,245,088	8,133,124
Apr.14,...	61,058,969	8,688,573	6,170,383	21,009,010	8,949,259	7,173,374
" 21,...	61,019,787	8,679,356	5,924,906	21,570,017	8,529,277	6,946,164
" 28,...	60,441,452	8,666,797	5,500,396	22,402,184	8,493,004	7,813,530
May 5,...	59,805,545	8,593,990	5,453,815	23,823,199	8,655,206	9,898,508
" 12,...	59,521,251	8,422,738	5,587,937	24,827,121	9,197,744	11,755,589
" 19,...	60,059,635	8,304,534	5,602,844	25,792,916	9,614,737	13,105,350
" 26,...	60,266,275	8,108,695	5,503,756	26,264,656	10,029,198	13,795,636
June 2,...	60,677,367	8,089,723	5,348,138	26,730,486	10,226,491	13,924,896
" 9,...	62,059,198	7,983,425	5,696,413	26,277,021	10,610,702	12,888,043
" 16,...	62,591,341	7,894,899	5,875,612	25,602,048	10,632,170	11,884,692
" 23,...	63,056,262	7,850,634	6,159,115	25,994,738	10,644,000	12,122,000
" 30,...	63,638,999	7,8014,87	6,131,019	26,237,754	10,678,205	12,265,781
July 7,...	64,590,268	7,934,037	6,943,827	26,868,862	11,686,142	13,869,180
" 14,...	65,635,000	7,978,000	7,091,000	26,685,000	12,675,700	13,624,000
" 21,...	65,939,168	7,980,780	6,840,474	26,808,242	13,436,486	14,060,762
" 28,...	66,168,806	7,963,696	6,618,160	26,698,825	13,583,589	13,197,239
Aug. 4,...	66,836,729	7,966,702	6,633,822	27,315,402	14,013,524	13,473,620
" 11,...	67,508,527	7,967,761	6,768,178	26,816,409	14,409,859	12,879,978
" 18,...	68,284,988	7,975,427	6,778,260	26,572,677	14,854,778	12,566,167
" 25,...	68,843,323	8,055,402	6,772,215	26,791,827	15,690,425	13,231,813

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Sept. 1,...	69,130,636	8,043,888	6,815,928	26,646,647	15,951,097	13,105,871
" 8,...	69,788,676	8,006,695	7,065,156	26,942,687	15,982,000	13,106,000
" 15,...	69,958,000	7,968,000	7,153,000	26,140,600	17,682,000	13,902,000
" 22,...	70,382,897	7,968,546	7,239,383	25,970,904	17,594,158	13,585,410
" 29,...	70,081,686	7,970,332	7,243,967	26,397,325	17,333,895	13,921,286
Oct. 6,...	71,043,500	7,991,580	7,616,044	28,166,155	17,805,000	14,961,700
" 13,...	71,226,581	7,977,116	7,949,524	28,673,721	17,036,000	14,960,700
" 20,...	72,553,000	7,842,700	7,832,000	29,316,000	17,868,700	14,555,000
" 27,...	73,649,936	7,850,392	7,793,469	30,725,604	17,498,251	14,380,200
Nov. 3,...	72,218,500	7,860,800	7,816,700	31,497,000	16,711,500	14,840,700
" 10,...	74,280,000	7,979,000	7,124,000	31,992,800	17,332,500	14,979,000
" 17,...	74,880,700	7,970,000	8,055,000	32,504,500	17,141,000	14,801,600
" 24,...	76,251,619	8,012,213	8,089,352	32,800,575	17,332,500	14,979,000
Dec. 1,...	76,695,700	7,961,600	8,216,000	32,705,000	17,652,000	13,689,600
" 8,...	76,292,500	8,034,000	8,227,000	33,783,000	16,728,700	14,083,000
" 15,...	76,654,300	8,054,000	8,120,600	34,059,400	16,159,000	13,397,700
" 22,...	77,060,000	7,685,000	8,006,000	33,786,000	16,464,000	13,538,000
" 29,...	77,226,000	7,584,000	7,969,500	32,907,000	16,954,000	13,085,000

PHILADELPHIA BANK RETURNS.

In the weekly statements for the past month, compared with those of the previous month, we find no important changes. The loans and deposits continue at the large increase noticed in our last number.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1862, $11,970,130,)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks
Jan. 6,...	$31,046,537	$5,688,728	$2,145,219	$21,396,014	$3,645,956	$1,796,805
" 13,...	31,145,938	5,692,123	2,162,152	21,824,510	3,992,952	1,702,716
" 20,...	30,601,160	5,733,450	2,120,756	20,698,496	4,120,261	1,575,116
" 27,...	30,385,606	5,821,323	2,121,146	20,058,098	4,209,006	1,858,688
Feb. 3,...	30,385,319	5,884,011	2,144,398	20,068,890	4,572,872	1,707,136
" 10,...	29,974,700	5,923,874	2,191,547	19,032,535	4,890,288	1,587,481
" 17,...	29,388,544	5,849,354	2,191,512	18,692,182	4,661,442	2,052,031
" 24,...	29,280,049	5,867,686	2,230,605	18,777,300	5,205,203	1,935,414
Mar. 3,...	29,393,356	5,881,108	2,343,493	18,541,190	5,218,383	1,828,383
" 10,...	28,083,499	5,869,780	2,575,503	17,375,771	5,131,834	1,783,169
" 17,...	28,723,835	5,897,891	2,632,627	17,253,461	5,342,876	1,649,137
" 24,...	28,350,615	5,915,535	2,707,804	17,066,267	5,210,365	1,774,162
" 31,...	27,831,333	5,884,314	2,904,542	17,024,198	5,100,186	2,134,892
April 7,...	28,037,691	5,886,424	3,378,970	16,636,538	5,607,488	2,231,889
" 14,...	28,076,717	5,912,870	3,496,420	18,112,446	4,868,842	2,634,171
" 21,...	28,246,783	6,046,260	3,525,400	19,011,833	4,548,327	2,504,147
" 28,...	28,793,116	6,052,827	3,613,994	20,223,556	4,470,674	3,128,069
May 5,...	29,524,432	6,049,685	3,759,692	21,316,614	4,531,887	3,823,659
" 12,...	29,966,347	5,728,028	3,867,200	23,002,263	5,118,541	4,981,291
" 19,...	31,121,563	5,529,221	4,045,696	23,385,009	5,597,984	4,804,956
" 26,...	31,583,603	5,587,012	4,186,055	23,973,478	5,472,615	5,120,902
June 2,...	31,747,070	5,583,482	4,335,013	24,884,644	5,373,322	5,372,748
" 9,...	31,951,715	5,632,307	4,354,599	24,973,011	5,161,280	5,355,034
" 16,...	32,132,654	5,630,503	4,298,023	24,807,057	5,036,828	5,396,328
" 23,...	32,554,655	5,609,926	4,324,735	24,143,314	5,144,628	4,800,094
" 30,...	32,911,578	5,573,999	4,430,057	24,410,423	5,583,644	5,233,273
July 7,...	33,206,661	5,545,007	4,749,220	24,307,782	5,733,574	5,422,124
" 14,...	33,118,502	5,579,945	4,859,921	24,183,604	5,936,594	5,415,203
" 21,...	33,086,808	5,613,724	5,005,583	24,485,817	5,794,325	5,219,445
" 28,...	33,383,373	5,579,788	5,055,276	24,764,281	5,918,294	5,308,984
Aug. 4,...	33,517,900	5,660,187	5,026,070	24,658,289	5,984,242	5,406,017
" 11,...	33,543,878	5,652,730	4,999,935	24,217,855	6,339,018	5,204,515
" 18,...	33,506,039	5,552,605	5,006,351	24,147,814	6,400,830	5,316,223

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due. from banks.
Aug. 25,...	33,781,575	5,483,051	5,002,418	24,237,662	6,533,786	5,446,155
Sept. 1,...	33,899,351	5,543,160	5,071,855	24,597,596	6,518,107	5,322,089
" 8,...	34,631,350	5,546,157	5,192,935	25,062,171	6,632,905	5,139,978
" 15, ..	35,015,676	5,515,044	5,177,587	24,780,163	7,420,242	5,104,687
" 22,...	34,871,535	5,449,027	5,174,550	24,194,214	7,702,439	5,212,078
" 29,...	34,589,387	5,440,140	5,111,474	24,997,926	7,255,049	6,035,429
Oct. 6,...	34,826,063	5,453,748	5,095,704	25,419,340	7,119,340	5,714,780
" 13,...	35,298,494	5,508,970	5,091,061	25,735,561	7,171,391	2,396,801
" 20,...	35,526,851	5,467,907	5,050,614	25,892,970	7,244,194	2,250,832
" 27,...	35,748,566	5,464,225	5,054,250	26,269,805	7,235,123	2,209,648
Nov. 3,...	35,514,335	5,458,029	4,889,890	26,938,714	7,126,338	2,179,074
" 10,...	35,978,123	5,524,621	4,768,487	27,396,678	6,217,072	1,989,908
" 17,...	36,737,071	5,511,954	4,655,755	27,368,122	7,260,093	2,255,410
" 24,...	37,479,266	5,521,468	4,565,836	26,826,342	7,063,805	1,722,098
Dec. 1,...	36,774,722	5,465,834	4,541,394	26,685,225	6,953,375	1,930,820
" 8,...	36,460,040	5,335,758	4,524,818	27,448,330	6,438,353	1,908,600
" 15,...	36,125,340	5,266,645	4,525,142	27,577,964	6,462,277	1,903,664
" 22,...	36,772,912	4,706,180	4,530,766	27,753,674	6,588,250	1,795,640
" 29,...	37,267,820	4,512,307	4,548,545	27,895,290	6,781,066	1,780,619

RHODE ISLAND BANK RETURNS.

The banks in Rhode Island, out of Providence, make their returns monthly. We give returns for May, August, September, November, and December. Taking all the Rhode Island banks together, the following will be seen to be the principal changes:

	Banks out of Providence.			Providence Banks.		
	Loans.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Loans.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Nov. 3,....	$7,006,849	$2,030,425	$1,194,416	$23,091,100	$4,264,400	$4,381,300
May 5,....	6,713,567	1,332,577	855,203	19,538,310	1,979,828	3,134,601
Dec. 1,....	7,201,131	2,077,555	1,082,563	22,943,900	4,306,200	4,058,300
Increase.	$487,563	$744,978	$237,360	$3,405,690	$2,326,372	$923,699

RHODE ISLAND BANKS OUT OF PROVIDENCE. (*Capital*, $5,187,979.)

	Loans.	Circulation.	Specie.	Deposits.
May 5	$6,713,567 28	$1,332,577 00	$154,031 24	$855,203 03
Aug. 4	6,774,060 60	1,730,886 00	138,058 46	1,052,985 15
Sept. 1	6,829,077 15	1,942,870 00	137,422 16	1,129,830 05
Nov. 3	7,006,849 95	2,030,425 00	132,707 25	1,194,416 44
Dec. 1	7,201,131 70	2,077,555 25	130,992 90	1,082,563 48

PROVIDENCE BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1862, $15,454,600.)

Date.	Loans	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 11, ...	$19,356,800	$408,700	$1,889,600	$3,054,600	$1,099,800	$915,400
" 18, ...	19,238,700	402,900	1,890,300	2,899,200	1,071,500	898,500
" 25, ...	19,160,600	394,700	1,756,500	2,899,600	959,400	1,057,400
Feb. 1, ...	19,160,600	394,700	1,811,100	2,950,500	871,800	925,500
" 8, ...	19,087,700	395,900	1,814,300	2,915,200	900,400	934,700
" 15, ...	19,109,400	394,800	1,784,000	2,762,200	911,100	1,081,000
" 22, ...	18,869,800	396,800	1,879,100	2,792,700	893,900	1,180,000
Mar. 1, ...	18,920,500	407,500	1,791,200	2,924,400	953,900	1,283,000
" 8, ...	18,953,900	405,100	1,973,500	3,030,600	1,131,500	1,598,800
" 15, ...	18,998,600	408,500	1,848,100	2,946,800	1,103,200	1,484,300
" 22, ...	19,148,400	408,300	1,879,200	3,060,900	1,085,000	1,407,700
" 29, ...	19,360,500	411,300	1,857,100	3,078,800	1,021,000	1,165,400
Apr. 5, ...	19,641,000	417,500	2,102,000	3,124,000	1,115,500	1,063,200
" 12, ...	19,719,200	416,600	2,036,800	3,017,700	1,081,000	894,800
" 19, ...	19,644,500	408,600	1,953,400	3,015,900	1,020,400	845,400

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
" 26, ...	19,620,300	413,700	1,877,200	3,123,500	948,400	961,200
May 3, ...	19,538,410	417,378	1,979,828	3,134,601	950,430	1,156,073
" 10, ...	19,070,200	410,300	1,969,400	3,164,700	1,132,500	1,714,400
June 7, ...	19,236,100	395,600	2,016,600	3,342,400	1,653,000	2,101,900
" 14, ...	19,641,600	388,500	2,182,700	3,274,600	1,666,500	1,818,200
" 21, ...	19,827,500	385,500	2,324,900	3,153,600	1,627,500	1,744,400
" 28, ...	20,285,500	383,400	2,510,500	3,283,200	1,873,500	1,753,700
July 5, ...	20,588,800	382,100	2,888,300	3,531,500	1,763,900	1,858,800
" 12, ...	20,416,400	388,000	2,953,800	3,183,100	1,744,600	1,796,600
" 19, ...	20,494,600	384,800	2,980,200	3,347,300	1,918,500	2,023,400
" 26, ...	21,078,400	376,400	3,143,100	4,282,200	2,061,800	2,150,200
Aug.16, ...	21,051,000	367,600	3,086,700	3,780,500	1,646,200	1,927,500
" 23, ...	21,119,500	363,300	3,102,000	3,569,900	1,804,600	2,090,700
Sept 6, ...	21,279,200	355,700	3,394,200	3,704,200	1,844,800	1,683,300
" 20, ...	21,804,200	35,690	3,484,300	3,731,600	1,710,800	1,642,300
Oct. 11, ...	22,197,400	379,000	4,006,600	4,066,000	1,751,100	1,859,900
" 25, ...	22,618,200	357,700	4,128,200	4,083,200	2,121,300	1,913,500
Nov. 8, ...	23,091,100	359,400	4,264,400	4,331,300	1,999,700	1,563,300
" 15, ...	23,365,700	369,100	4,361,200	4,402,900	1,948,800	1,315,700
" 22, ...	23,062,700	307,700	4,398,000	4,479,200	1,985,500	1,337,600
Dec. 6, ...	22,943,900	370,900	4,306,200	4,058,300	1,651,400	1,224,800
" 13, ...	22,994,600	369,000	4,495,500	4,325,300	1,961,900	1,405,100
" 20, ...	22,733,700	367,600	4,185,500	4,624,400	1,305,100	1,733,800
" 27, ...	22,640,400	366,300	4,181,500	4,732,700	1,505,900	1,952,900

BANK OF ENGLAND.

The returns of the Bank of England the past month show a further decrease in bullion each week, the same causes continuing to operate, though to a less extent:

For the week ending November 12	£364,287
" " " 19	224,952
" " " 26	145,578
" " December 3	9,179
" " " 10	181,751
Total decrease from November 12 to December 10	£597,747
Decrease preceding eight weeks	2,181,905
Total decrease since September 10	£2,779,652

The following comparative table will be found of interest, affording as it does, a view of the bank returns, and the bank rate of discount during a period of three years, corresponding with the date of our last returns received December 10th:

At corresponding dates with the present week.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Circulation, including bank post bills	£20,585,465	£20,443,597	£20,116,003
Public deposits	7,029,111	5,920,166	8,490,519
Other deposits	12,104,219	13,097,426	13,579,489
Government securities	9,540,273	10,896,409	11,084,517
Other securities	19,987,188	16,329,817	19,269,955
Reserve of notes and coin	8,000,165	10,216,101	10,127,183
Coin and bullion	13,447,105	15,267,686	14,828,063
Bank rate of discount	5 p. c.	3 p. c.	3 p. c.

Subjoined is our usual table with the returns brought down to December 10th:

WEEKLY STATEMENT.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Jan. 1.. .	£20,818,190	£7,345,833	£15,036,062	£30,419,780	£15,961,439	3 pr. ct.
" 8....	21,086,675	4,542,974	18,206,488	31,022,505	16,046,017	2½ "
" 15....	21,460,925	4,583,353	16,480,452	29,509,864	16,291,626	2½ "
" 22....	21,697,928	5,467,840	15,366,081	29,464,720	16,350,939	2½ "
" 29....	21,183,376	5,753,063	14,751,486	28,696,456	16,280,369	2½ "
Feb. 5....	21,427,554	5,788,441	14,179,917	28,834,352	15,956,903	2½ "
" 12....	21,236,312	4,884,989	15,526,334	29,010,241	16,042,949	2½ "
" 19....	20,772,726	5,397,144	15,085,843	28,771,812	15,894,405	2½ "
" 26....	20,736,715	5,762,849	14,939,742	29,024,962	15,749,065	2½ "
Mar. 5....	21,217,246	6,755,287	13,737,507	29,692,441	15,673,898	2½ "
" 12....	20,013,685	7,527,911	13,763,718	29,489,795	16,027,111	2½ "
" 19....	20,483,509	8,011,694	13,340,928	28,953,089	16,548,586	2½ "
" 26....	20,814,655	8,413,275	13,154,258	29,140,207	16,812,798	2½ "
April 2....	21,501,595	8,456,468	13,622,532	30,398,790	16,849,198	2½ "
" 9....	21,822,105	5,625,314	16,336,169	29,981,793	16,881,940	2½ "
" 16....	22,048,463	5,225,132	15,710,260	29,325,888	16,748,434	2½ "
" 23....	21,655,553	5,584,973	15,915,247	29,022,128	17,172,204	2½ "
" 30....	21,946,997	6,867,375	14,357,007	29,164,075	17,089,446	2½ "
May 7....	21,752,884	7,503,991	13,863,643	28,961,214	17,265,745	2½ "
" 14...	21,618,780	6,304,683	14,948,308	29,076,079	16,919,147	2½ "
" 21....	21,539,430	6,557,811	14,567,671	29,433,044	16,344,940	3 "
" 28....	21,265,561	6,937,808	14,685,087	29,824,704	16,178,815	3 "
June 4....	21,515,263	7,518,007	13,188,136	29,841,864	15,489,728	3 "
" 11....	21,329,641	8,825,516	13,156,662	31,396,492	15,036,100	3 "
" 18....	21,076,059	9,322,949	13,085,271	31,342,547	15,268,458	3 "
" 25....	21,172,057	9,629,594	13,399,245	31,424,661	15,909,638	3 "
July 2....	22,242,361	9,672,845	13,851,869	32,709,039	16,220,771	3 "
" 9....	22,504,490	5,429,939	17,199,715	31,287,912	17,055,537	2½ "
" 16....	23,085,409	5,223,380	17,063,630	30,942,858	17,671,890	2½ "
" 23....	22,942,503	5,291,213	17,202,923	30,681,501	18,060,617	2 "
" 30 ...	22,933,036	5,895,840	16,903,068	30,542,050	18,448,443	2 "
Aug. 6....	23,378,393	6,157,358	15,282,959	30,162,297	17,956,938	2 "
" 13....	22,920,727	6,838,546	14,594,854	29,929,352	17,778,846	2 "
" 20....	22,900,555	7,150,252	14,568,007	30,309,703	17,674,604	2 "
" 27....	22,079,890	7,508,882	14,865,006	30,106,295	17,678,698	2 "
Sept. 3....	22,348,918	7,671,934	14,973,470	30,808,748	17,825,220	2 "
" 10....	21,895,385	8,768,329	13,809,643	30,504,527	17,611,538	2 "
" 17....	21,610,987	9,074,279	13,733,905	30,700,116	17,3[illegible]5,753	2 "
" 24....	21,300,731	9,268,106	13,825,230	30,874,552	17,166,742	2 "
Oct. 1....	22,365,351	8,486,834	13,595,337	31,140,897	16,949,137	2 "
" 8....	22,137,670	8,333,779	13,530,122	31,101,260	16,548,156	2 "
" 15....	22,395,352	6,253,982	15,712,485	31,192,688	16,230,260	2 "
" 22....	22,271,497	5,944,238	15,197,661	30,566,930	15,912,699	2 "
" 29....	21,735,522	6,091,697	16,455,543	31,839,976	15,516,854	3 "
Nov. 5....	21,878,952	6,271,105	14,797,889	30,788,184	15,425,810	3 "
" 12....	21,234,960	6,928,047	14,738,147	30,605,289	15,389,523	3 "
" 19....	21,080,182	7,354,390	14,004,015	30,372,843	15,164,571	3 "
" 26....	20,675,944	7,390,865	14,376,780	30,531,585	15,018,993	3 "
Dec. 3....	20,554,545	8,195,360	13,649,958	30,464,758	15,009,814	3 "
" 10....	20,116,003	8,490,519	13,579,489	30,451,472	14,828,063	3 "

REPORT OF SECRETARY CHASE.

We give the following from the report of Mr. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury, submitted to Congress now in session:

In consequence of the extensive character of the means employed for the prosecution of the war, and the exigencies which have arisen during

the progress of the war calling for unanticipated expenditures, the estimates submitted in July, 1861, for the year ending June 30, 1862, were exceeded by the actual expenditures. It will not be a matter of surprise if the estimates now submitted for the year ending June 30, 1863, are also exceeded.

The estimates submitted at the July session of 1861, were based on estimates for an army of 300,000 men, and for a naval force quite inconsiderable in comparison with that found afterward indispensable. Congress increased the army to 500,000, in addition to special corps numbering over 50,000. In consequence of this the estimates for July required correction in December. For the reason that the President has called an additional force of 600,000 men the estimates for the current fiscal year must prove inadequate. The increase of the army, however, did not greatly effect disbursements between the date of the December report and the close of the fiscal year.

The increase of debt did not, therefore, exceed the December estimate. On the contrary, while the estimate anticipated a public debt on the 30th June, 1862, of $517,372,802 93, its actual amount on that day was $514,211,371 92. This amount does not include unascertained claims, but only that debt, the evidences of which exist in the treasury, upon its books or in the form of requisitions in favor of creditors or disbursing officers. It is not probable, however, that at the date named, these claims much if at all exceeded the balance in the treasury, namely, $13,043,546 81.

But while the public debt on July 1, 1862, did not reach the amount anticipated by these estimates, there is no room for the hope that the result of the current fiscal year or the next will exhibit a similar proportion. On the contrary, the estimate of the public debt on the 1st of July, 1863, heretofore submitted, must now be advanced, in view of the unexpected increase of expenditures, authorized and incurred or likely to be incurred, to $1,122,297,403 24; and on the supposition that the war may be continued with undiminished disbursements until the 1st of July, 1864, the debt likely to have been then incurred must be estimated at $1,744,685,586 80.

The Secretary has endeavored to reduce the cost of the debt in the form of interest to the lowest possible amount, and he has thus far kept it within very moderate limits.

The first loans, being of a magnitude hitherto undreamed of in our market, were necessarily made at an interest which he regarded as high; but large amounts are now obtained at five and four per cent, while the circulation of United States notes constitute practically a loan from the people to their government without interest. The average rate on the whole loan is thus reduced to 4 3.5 per cent. Whether a similar result may attend future loans must be determined partly by the legislation of Congress, partly by the conduct of the war, and partly by the condition of the markets.

The statements for the annual receipts and expenditures for the last and current fiscal year, in comparison with those of December, must undergo modifications similar to those of the public debt. Both receipts and expenditures for the current fiscal year will be increased, the former by the operations of the tariff and internal revenue, and the latter by the exigencies of the war.

The annual receipts for the fiscal year of 1862 from all sources, includ-

ing the balance of $2,257,065 80 in the Treasury from the preceding year, were $583,885,247 06; and the aggregate expenditures $570,841,700 25; leaving a balance in the Treasury, July 1st, 1862, of $13,043,546 81. From the receipts and expenditures should be deducted the amounts received and disbursed during the year on account of permanent and temporary debt, amounting to $96,096,922 09; leaving the total of receipts not applied in payment of debt $487,788,324 97, and the total of current disbursements $474,744,778 16. Both the amount of debt and the amount of expenditure for the last year fall short of the estimates.

The actual receipts for the first quarter of the fiscal year 1863, commencing July 1, 1862, appear from the books of the Treasury; the receipts of the remaining quarters can only be estimated on the basis of appropriations made and asked for by the several departments. They have been and are estimated as follows:

For the 1st quarter, the actual receipts from all sources, excluding loans and including the balance from last year were		$37,208,529 02
For the 2d, 3d, and 4th, quarters, the estimated receipts are		143,286,816 58
Making the total of actual and estimated receipts during 1863, from the direct tax		180,495,345 60
To this must be added sums already realized from loans in all forms which amounted during the 1st quarter to	$114,458,821 02	
And during the months of October and November, estimating for some of the last days of November, to	85,670,895 99	
Making an amount already obtained from loans to 1st of December of		$200,129,717 01
And there must be added, also the amount which will probably be hereafter realized from loans in all forms, under existing laws, namely		131,021,197 35
Making the total of receipts, actual and anticipated, under existing laws		$511,646,259 96
On the other hand—		
For the 1st quarter of the fiscal year 1863 the actual expenditures were		$111,084,447 40
For the 2d, 3d, and 4th quarters the actual and estimated expenditures, under existing appropriations, including interest on public debt, are		672,834,841 78
And additional appropriations are asked for by the several departments to meet estimated deficiencies, to the amount of		109,418,032 30
Making the whole amount actually expended or estimated		$893,346,321 48
To which must be added the estimate for payment of principal of public debt during the year of		95,212,456 14
Making an aggregate, for the purposes, of		$988,558,777 62

It is necessary to observe, however, that in the present state of the law the estimates of the department always largely exceed the expenditures. The law forbids the transfer of any part of an appropriation from one object or class of objects to another. Consequently, when any appropriation happens to be exhausted, expenditures for the objects of it, however important, must be arrested until a further appropriation can be had. Such an occurrence, during the recess of Congress, might occasion great public inconvenience and injury.

Hence it has become usual to make every estimate large enough to cover all possible requirements under it till a session of Congress shall afford an opportunity of providing for any deficiencies which may thereafter occur. Hence there is always a large balance of unexpended appropriations at the end of every fiscal year, which, after two years from the making of them, are carried to the credit of what is called the surplus fund.

It may be safely estimated, therefore, that of the appropriations made and asked for, there will remain unexpended on the 30th June, 1863, and should, of course, be deducted from the apparent aggregate of expenditures, not less than		$200,000,000 00
Leaving as a true aggregate of expenditures for the year		788,558,777 62
But of this sum there has been received and may be expected from customs, internal revenue, etc	$180,495,845 60	
And from loans	331,150,914 36	
Making an aggregate of realized and anticipated resources of		$511,646,259 96
And leaving to be provided for the current year by the action of Congress		$276,912,517 66

The estimate for the fiscal year 1864, ending on the 30th June in that year, must be conjectured. The estimates of expenditures have been framed on the supposed continuance of the war, and the estimates of receipts are based upon the operations of recently enacted laws, the working of which cannot be accurately foreseen.

The estimates of expenditures are as follows:

For the civil list	$25,081,510 08
For the Interior Department, pensions, Indians, etc.	10,346,577 01
For the War Department	738,829,146 80
For the Navy Department	68,257,255 01
For interest on public debt	33,513,890 50
For principal of public debt	19,384,804 16
	$895,413,183 56
To which must be added the expenditures for which appropriations made are estimated as remaining undrawn July 1, 1863	$200,000,000 00

Making an aggregate of expenditures to July 1, 1864, for which appropriations are made or asked for, of	$1,095,413,183 56
From which should be deducted the probable amount of appropriations which will remain undrawn on the 1st of July, 1864	250,000,000 00
Making the true amount of probable expenditures during the fiscal year, 1864	$845,413,183 56

The estimates of receipts are as follows:

From customs	$70,000,000
From internal duties	150,000,000
From lands	25,000
From miscellaneous sources	3,000,000

Making the aggregate of receipts for the fiscal year 1864 to be deducted from the aggregate of expenditures	223,025,000 00
And leaving the amount of expenditures of the fiscal year 1864, to be provided for	$622,388,183 56

The whole amount to be provided by Congress, beyond resources available under existing laws, may therefore, upon the supposition of the continuance of the war, be stated as follows:

For the fiscal year 1863	$276,912,517 66
For the fiscal year 1864	622,388,183 56
Making an aggregate	$899,300,701 22

FINANCES OF OHIO.

The following is the statement for the fiscal year ending November 15, 1862:

RECEIPTS.

General revenue	$1,381,438 39
Canal fund	104,949 47
Sinking fund	1,975,626 28
State common school fund	1,280,126 35
District school library fund	430 82
National road fund	21,484 68
Military fund	920,952 92
Soldiers' allotment fund	820,945 21
Bank redemption fund	1,308 00
Three per cent fund	19 04
Seneca County Bank	1,168 36
City Bank of Cincinnati	2,111 27
Canal Bank, Cleveland	1,746 35
Total amount received during the year	$6,512,307 14

DISBURSEMENTS.

General revenue	$1,114,523 49	
Canal fund	104,949 47	
Sinking fund	1,922,340 97	
State common school fund	1,207,675 90	
District school library fund	245 53	
National road fund	16,450 47	
Military fund	920,952 92	
Soldiers' allotment fund	741,312 63	
Bank redemption fund	354 25	
Three per cent fund	19 04	
Seneca County Bank	147 25	
City Bank of Cincinnati	328 26	
Canal Bank of Cleveland	266 80	
		$6,029,566 98
Balance in Treasury, November 15, 1862		$482,740 16

FINANCES OF CINCINNATI.

The following is a statement showing the total tax and taxable property in Cincinnati and Hamilton County, which includes that city:

	Taxable property.	Total tax.
Total, 1862	$120,060,960	$2,019,364 72
" 1861	119,487,390	2,240,757 69
Decrease in taxation for this year		$221,492 97

TAXES LEVIED BY STATE AUTHORITIES.

General revenue	$120,060 96
Sinking fund	168,085 36
War fund	42,021 34
Common school fund	156,079 26
Volunteer relief fund	72,036 58
Total State tax for 1862	$558,283 50
" " 1861	543,667 62
Increase	$14,615 88

TAXES LEVIED BY COUNTY AUTHORITIES.

County purposes	$126,064 02
Bridge tax	16,808 53
Building tax	6,003 05
Public buildings debt tax	212,507 90
County infirmary or poor tax	10,709 93
Longview Asylum	48,024 39
District road	5,908 03
Township tax	7,689 97
School purposes	142,554 74
Special taxes	27,788 51
Borough taxes	782,211 17

Delinquent taxes and forfeitures.....	74,780 98
Total county tax for 1862.....	$1,461,081 22
" for 1861.....	1,697,190 07
Decrease.....	$236,109 85

In Cincinnati the valuation of property is over $93,000,000, and the tax $1,709,500.

FINANCES OF ILLINOIS.

In 1840 or 1841, the Governor of Illinois in his message stated that there was not enough money in the Treasury to buy candles to allow the Legislature to hold evening sessions, and also that there were official letters then in the post-office which they had not the money to take out. Now this same State can boast of being one of the most wealthy. Its progress has been truly wonderful. The following interesting tables are made up from the Auditor's report. They show the present and past assessed value of the property in the State. The assessor's valuation does not however give the true value—that is much greater. For instance, the census report places the true value of real estate and personal property in Illinois in 1860 at $871,860,232, while the figures below make it at the same time only $367,227,742. We cannot understand how there can be so great a difference between the real and assessed valuation, and think there must be an error somewhere. Yet the statements below will account for a part, and perhaps a large part of this difference. The Auditor gives the following:

	1860.		1861.	
Personal property.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
Horses.....	590,963	$22,359,202	625,242	$21,054,138
Neat cattle.....	1,425,978	12,468,537	1,428,362	11,491,803
Mules and asses.....	36,371	1,843,291	39,278	1,708,530
Sheep.....	584,430	695,035	731,379	747,437
Hogs.....	1,530,256	2,745,915	2,196,581	4,032,374
Carriages and wagons.	211,801	5,066,790	209,247	4,859,507
Clocks and watches..	167,145	820,735	169,779	715,768
Pianos	3,407	321,717	3,467	248,677
Goods and merchandise.....		10,667,620		9,104,949
Bankers', brokers', and stock jobbers' property.....		6,798,247		2,009,611
Manufactured articles		1,364,551		1,111,127
Moneys and credits.....		16,023,799		13,781,843
Bonds, stocks, joint stock companies, &c.....		551,727		443,329
Unenumerated property		11,552,713		11,549,953
Aggregate.....		$92,684,879		$83,653,425
Deduction.....		3,800,764		2,932,507
Total value of taxable property...		$88,884,115		$80,720,918

REAL ESTATE.

Railroad property	$12,085,472	$11,243,722
Lands	189,286,287	197,404,697
Town lots	76,971,868	41,454,142
Total real estate	$278,343,667	$250,102,561
Total value of real and personal property	367,327,742	330,823,479
State tax revenue	1,175,128 78	165,411 73
State school tax	734,455 48	661,646 93
State interest tax	550,841 51	661,646 96
Total tax chargeable	2,460,425 87	1,488,705 65

	Acres in cultivation. 1859.	1860.
Wheat	2,259,648	1,963,328
Corn	4,020,399	4,119,620
Other field products	1,084,579	1,035,673

The following exhibits the value of property in the State for a series of years, the rate of taxation, and the gross amount of State tax:

	Total value of property.	Rate of tax. mills.	State tax.
1839	$58,889,525 00	2	$147,770 05
1840	58,752,168 00	2	117,821 28
1841	70,156,053 00	3	210,498 10
1842	72,605,424 00	1½	108,908 08
1843	72,416,800 00	2	144,833 60
1844	75,767,765 00	2	151,495 53
1845	82,327,105 00	3	246,981 22
1846	88,815,403 43	3½	311,118 00
1847	92,206,493 96	3.7	339,779 53
1848	102,132,193 97	3.7	370,232 01
1849	105,132,193 97	5.8	612,428 10
1850	119,868,336 37	5.8	702,076 17
1851	137,818,079 30	6.0⅛	834,495 60
1852	149,294,805 00	6	909,472 87
1853	225,156,622 00	4.9⅛	1,116,993 37
1854	252,756,568 00	4.9⅛	1,279,089 87
1855	334,398,425 00	6.7	2,260,904 90
1856	349,951,272 00	6.7	2,368,741 31
1857	407,477,367 00	6.7	2,750,346 01
1858	403,140,321 00	6.7	2,739,429 90
1859	366,702,053 00	6.7	2,528,992 11
1860	367,227,742 00	6.7	2,460,425 55
1861	330,823,479 00	4.5	1,488,705 65

From 1825 to 1860, inclusive, the rate of taxation remained at 6.7 mills on the dollar. In 1851 the revenue tax was 5 cents on the $100; the school and interest tax 20 cents each on the $100, being a total of 45 cents on the $100.

The valuation of property has been greatly reduced, year after year, by the assessors, until at the present time, as will be seen by the appended table, it is most ridiculously low:

	1860.	1861.		1860.	1861.
Horses.....value	$37 84	$33 69	Hogs.....value	1 79	1 84
Neat cattle.....	8 74	8 05	Carriages, wagons.	23 92	23 22
Mules and asses...	50 82	43 50	Clocks and watches	4 91	4 22
Sheep.....	1 19	1 02	Pianos.....	94 43	71 73

In 1859, pianos were valued at $133. In 1861, they are only worth on an average $71 73. The valuation differs in different counties, which might be avoided.

The following table exhibits the value of personal property, town lots, lands, and railroads for a series of years:

	Personal.	Town lots.	Lands.	Railroads.
1856...	$104,108,235	$44,776,557	$168,974,270	$6,639,220
1857...	111,813,908	44,398,686	201,693,234	7,529,703
1858...	97,853,641	46,183,564	249,971,641	9,131,475
1859...	88,288,094	70,676,364	194,177,198	11,758,695
1860...	88,884,115	76,971,868	189,286,287	12,085,472
1861...	80,720,918	41,454,142	197,404,697	11,243,722

TOTALS.

1856.....	$349,956,272	1859.....	$366,702,053
1857.....	403,140,321	1860.....	367,227,742
1858.....	407,477,367	1861.....	330,823,479

ROBBERY IN THE UNITED STATES TREASURY.

Mr. SPINNER, Treasurer of the United States, has issued the following notice:

Treasury of the United States,
Washington, Dec. 8, 1862.

On Thursday last, the 4th instant, there disappeared from this office a package of blank certificates of indebtedness, of the denomination of $5,000, numbered from 14,501 to 15,000, both inclusive. No certificates like them have ever been turned from this office, and none will ever be issued.

The true certificates of the denomination of $5,000 have their numbers written on the face in red ink, at the upper corners, directly under the marginal border. The words, "If the order be not filled up this certificate issued to ——, will be paid to bearer," are printed on the back of the certificates in red ink. All that have been issued since about the 1st instant, commencing about No. 11,800, have the large denomination, $5,000, printed on the face in red ink.

All certificates that will issue from this office in future will be like those issued heretofore. Those in the lost package differ from the genuine in having the words above quoted, viz: "If the order blank be not filled up this certificate issued to —— will be paid to bearer," engraved on the face of the certificate, beginning over the vignette, and there taking the place of the border, and continued below on each side over the engraved denomination of five thousand dollars.

The numbers are printed on each side in red ink under the $5,000 denomination. Certificates of the denomination of $1,000, answering the description of those lost, have been and are being issued, but none of that denomination have been lost.

T. E. SPINNER,
Treasurer of the United States.

POSTAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE POSTMASTER GENERAL'S REPORT.

The Report of the Postmaster General for this year, as a whole, will be read with unusual interest, and contains numerous suggestions of great importance to this branch of the public service.

The gross revenue of the Department for this fiscal year, including the standing Treasury credit for free mail matter, and a small amount appropriated for the relief of individuals, was $9,012,549 56. The expenditures for the same year amounted to $11,125,364 13. The regular postal revenue for 1862 is only $49,470 50 less than it was for the fiscal year 1861, during a large part of which year revenue was paid in from all the States of the Union. This fact shows a large increase in the correspondence of the loyal States. While the revenues have been so nearly sustained at the highest standard, the expenses have been largely reduced. For the preceding year the expenditures were $2,481,394 98 greater than last year. The following comparisons of figures are interesting:

Expenditures for 1860, for services in all the States, $14,874,722 89; revenues for the same year, $9,218,567 40; deficiency, $5,656,705 49; expenditures for 1861, service interrupted in 1861, $13,606,759 11; gross revenues for 1861, service interrupted in 1861, $9,049,296 46; deficiency, $4,557,462 71; expenditures for 1862, $11,125,364 13; revenue for 1862, $9,012,549 56; deficiency, $2,112,814 57; reduction of expenditures as compared with 1860, $3,749,408; reduction of expenditures as compared with 1861, $2,481,394.

The Department has not been for many years so nearly self-sustaining. The result is largely owing to the suspension of postal expenditures in the South, which were greatly in excess of postal receipts, but not alone to that. A revision of all discretionary expenses has, as the Postmaster General tells us, been made, and large reductions ordered. The pay of agents, he also says, has been regraded and equalized, and other beneficial changes made.

The number of postage stamps issued to postmasters during the year was 7,078,188. The value of letter envelopes was $733,255 50. The value of stamped newspaper wrappers, $23,643 50; increase of issue over 1861, $1,144,858 27. The total value sold was $8,910,131 89.

The increasing demand on the part of the public for stamped newspaper shows that their introduction has satisfied a public demand and promoted the convenience of correspondents.

In the first quarter of the current year ending September 30th, the number of stamps issued to postmasters was 104,000,000; their calls for about 200,000,000, which would have been nearly sufficient to meet the usual demand for a year. 'This extraordinary demand arose from the temporary use of these stamps as a currency by the public in lieu of the

smaller denominations of specie, and ceased with the introduction of the so-called postal currency.

The difference between the value of stamps sold and stamps canceled in the fiscal year 1862 shows $738,379 96 as the amount in the hands of purchasers on the first of July, 1862.

The whole number of dead letters received and examined during the year is 2,292,018, which is 267,000 less than in the previous year. The whole number of valuable letters sent out by the dead letter office was 51,239. Many interesting details are given in the report touching the operations of this office. Out of 21,493 cases where causes of non-delivery were ascertained, only 225 were attributable to the fault of postmasters. 822 letters had no address whatever.

Congress at its first session passed an act authorizing the employment of twenty-five additional clerks to facilitate the return of dead letters to their writers, with the expectation that the receipts of postage thereon would cover the appropriation of $20,000 for their compensation. The result thus far shows that an excess of revenue therefrom over the expenses has accrued to the amount of several thousand dollars. The whole number of post offices in the United States, remaining established on the 30th of June, 1862, was 28,875, of which there were in the loyal States and Districts, 19,973, and in the insurrectionary States there were 8,902. The net increase in the established offices over last year was 121. The number of cases acted on by the appointment office during the year was 7,785. The total postages accrued on United States and European mails during the year amounts to $1,144,095 82, being a reduction of the amount of the previous year of $217,940 88. Of the total amount collected the excess collected in the United States was $212,607 36, which constitutes the balance paid to the several foreign departments, the cost of exchange being defrayed by the United States. The Postmaster General objects to this cost as inequitable, and proposes, if possible, to relieve the Department from this burden.

The Postmaster General has made special efforts to retrieve the foreign correspondence of the country from its complexity, now so embarrassing alike to correspondents and to postal officers. Separate negotiations have been found altogether inadequate to secure simple and satisfactory arrangements. He, therefore, opened a correspondence in August last, through the Department of State, with foreign administrations, proposing a convention of postal representatives, at some convenient point, to consider the enumerated difficulties and the means of remedying.

Several replies have been received from the various governments, and all are favorable and agree to the project. This country, comprising emigrants from almost every civilized nation, is especially interested in the subject proposed to be brought before this conference. It is a species of postal improvement requiring the establishment of greater uniformity and some common principle of arrangement, and is connected with our prosperous commercial intercourse with other countries.

The mail lettings which went into operation on the first of July last in the Western Division, and were effected on such favorable terms, as compared with the previous lettings, that a reduction of expenditure resulted to the amount of $331,000. At the same time the length of the routes was increased by 159 miles, with an annual increase of taxation of 754,428

miles. Notwithstanding this increase of service, the net saving is over nine per cent, as compared with the previous term.

The total annual cost of the internal service in operation on the 30th of June last was $5,853,834, to which add the cost of the various agencies, route and local messengers, etc., etc., $460,630 92, and the cost of the service at that date is $6,314,464 92, which includes one million dollars for the Overland Mail Route, not before charged upon the revenues of this Department.

The saving in the lettings of the West to July, 1862, is attributed to a strict adherence to the law of 1845, authorizing what is known as star bids.

The report renews the recommendation for codifying all the postal laws, and hopes it may be done at this session.

Among the improvements under consideration by the Postmaster General, is that of embossing postal stamps on business and other envelopes supplied for that purpose by persons desiring to furnish their own designs. It is believed that this will largely increase the use of stamped envelopes in lieu of stamps, which is an object of great importance to the Department.

He also discourages the use of the mails for transmitting money, and speaks favorably of a limited money order system, and offers an amendment to the registry system, by which a return receipt shall be sent to the dispatching party, as evidence of the fact and date of delivery of his package.

He also proposes to abolish many of the discriminating rates of postage now existing, approximating, as far as possible, to uniformity, and increasing the efficiency and extent of the delivery and collection of letters by carriers in cities. These important changes have been very fully and ably advocated, as our readers are aware, in the *Merchants' Magazine* during the past year.

The attention of the public is called to the great importance of good postal officers for a successful administration of this Department. If the postmasters and their clerks are selected without chief reference to their efficiency and personal fitness, no amount of good legislation will secure public satisfaction. An energetic, faithful, and efficient postmaster, devoted to the interests of the service, should be retained as long as he illustrates those qualities in his administration of the office. He attributes the success of the English system largely to the permanent character of their officers, and their familiarity with the laws and regulations. He regrets the extent to which other motives to appointments have prevailed in this country. He urges a return to the old standard of honesty, capacity, and fidelity, and anticipates more public satisfaction and administrative success from the adoption of such a principle than from any other single act of reform. He uses this language:

"It is my intention to adhere firmly to my determination to displace incompetency and indifference wherever found in official position under my control, without any discrimination in favor of appointments I may myself have made under misinformation of facts."

As a whole, we think this document well deserves careful attention, and we trust that many of its suggestions will be adopted by Congress.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE NAVAL FORCE OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

As to the condition of our navy, the Secretary in his report says: When I entered upon the discharge of my public duties as the head of this department, in March, 1861, there were but 42 vessels in commission, and as stated in my last annual report, but 76 vessels then attached to the navy have been made available. Most of those in commission were abroad, and of the 7,600 seamen in the pay of the government, there were on the 10th of March, 1861, but 207 men in all the ports and receiving ships on the Atlantic coast to man our ships and protect the navy yards and depots, or to aid in suppressing the rising insurrection.

Neither the expiring administration, nor Congress, which had been in session until the 4th of March, had taken measures to increase or strengthen our naval power, notwithstanding the lowering aspect of our public affairs, so that when a few weeks after the inauguration I desired troops for the protection of the public property at Norfolk and Annapolis, or sailors to man and remove the vessels, neither soldiers nor sailors could be procured. There were no men to man our ships, nor were the few ships at our yards in a condition to be put into immediate service.

The proclamation of April, placing our entire coast from the mouth of the Chesapeake to the Rio Grande under blockade, found us with a naval force, even were every vessel on our coast, inadequate to the work required.

* * * * * * * * * * *

We have at this time afloat or progressing to rapid completion a naval force consisting of 427 vessels, there having been added to those of the old navy enumerated in my report of July, 1861, exclusive of those that were lost, 353 vessels, armed in the aggregate with 1,577 guns, and of the capacity of 240,028 tons.

The annals of the world do not show so great an increase in so brief a period to the naval power of any country. It affords me satisfaction to state that the acquisitions made to the navy from the commercial marine have proved to be of an excellent character, and though these vessels were not built for war purposes, and consequently have not the strength of war vessels, they have performed all the service that was expected of them. No equal amount of tonnage was ever procured for any service at prices correspondingly low, and with so little disturbance to the commercial community, and no vessels were ever constructed on better terms for the government, or have better subserved the purposes for which they were designed, than the twenty-three gunboats for which the department contracted on its own responsibility at the commencement of hostilities, without waiting for the action of Congress. In no respects, during this war, has the government been better or more economically and faithfully served than in the additions that have been made by construction and purchase for the navy.

In order that the actual condition of the navy, past and present, from March 4, 1861, to November, 1862, and the expansion which has been made, may be seen, I present a tabular statement of the number of vessels, and the aggregate of their armament and tonnage:

NAVAL FORCE AT DATE OF THE LAST ANNUAL REPORT.

Description.	Number.	Guns.	Tons.
Old navy	76	1,783	105,271
Purchased vessels	136	518	71,297
New vessels, completed and under construction	52	256	41,448
Total	264	2,557	218,016

PRESENT NAVAL FORCE.

Old navy	74	1,691	100,008
Purchased vessels	180	688	86,910
Transferred from War and Treasury Departments	50	230	82,828
New vessels, completed and under construction	123	659	120,290
Total	427	3,268	340,036
Increase since last report	163	711	122,020

ADDED SINCE 4TH OF MARCH, 1861.
(*Exclusive of those lost.*)

By purchase	180	688	86,910
By transfer	50	230	32,828
By construction	123	659	120,290
Total	353	1,577	240,028

ADDED BY CONSTRUCTION.

Second class screw sloops of war	13	116	16,396
Screw gunboats	27	108	14,033
Side wheel gunboats	39	296	36,337
Armored wooden vessels	12	65	20,893
Armored iron vessels	32	74	32,631
Total	123	659	120,290

IRON-CLAD NAVY.

Seaboard.			
Armored wooden vessels	8	56	19,005
" iron vessels	20	42	22,611
Western rivers.			
Armored wooden vessels	4	9	1,888
" wooden vessels, (transferred from War Department)	10	122	6,284
" iron vessels	12	32	10,020
Total	54	261	59,808

NAVY ON WESTERN WATERS.

Armored vessels	26	261	59,808
Wooden gunboats	18	79	6,380
Transports & ordnance steamers	10	2	9,000
Rams	5	24	11,200
Armed tugs	13	13	650
Total	72	379	87,038

When the vessels now under construction are completed, the navy will consist of—

Sailing vessels	104	1,415	74,175
Steam vessels	323	1,815	265,861
Total	427	3,268	340,036

EXPENSES AND ESTIMATES.

The appropriations for the fiscal year ending amounted to $43,615,551 77. The expenses were $42,200,529 96, leaving an unexpended balance of $1,115,021 81. The amount appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1863, is $52,814,359 07. The estimates submitted for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1864, are as follows:

Navy proper	$65,096,277 70
Marine corps	1,247,417 31
Navy yards	1,604,123 00
Hospitals	82,400 00
Magazines	33,522 00
Miscellaneous	192,515 00
Total	$68,257,255 01

PRIVATEERS—THE ALABAMA.

The Secretary has the following in regard to the privateers fitted and fitting out in England: The rebel armed steamer Sumter, which, after committing depredations, was at the date of my last report, fleeing to escape our cruisers, crossed the Atlantic. She was tracked to Gibraltar, where she has since remained, one of our cruisers vigilantly guarding her from Algeeiras. With this exception, no other armed vessel has plundered our commerce or inflicted injury on our countrymen, until within a recent period, when a steamer known as 290, or Alabama, built and fitted out in England —a vessel that had not been in any port or visited any waters but those of Great Britain—went forth from the shores of that country, ravaging, sinking, burning, and destroying the property of our merchants who, knowing our peaceful relations with England, and uninformed that such a cruiser had been permitted to leave Great Britain, were unprepared for such assault and devastation.

How far and to what results this abuse may be carried with impunity to the government which tolerates it, is matter of grave consideration. The piratical privateer 290, or Alabama, has no register nor record, no regular ship's papers nor evidence of transfer, and no vessel captured by her has ever been sent into any port for adjudication and condemnation. All forms

of law which civilization has introduced to protect and guard private rights, and all those regulations of public justice which distinguish and discriminate the legalized naval vessels from the pirate, are disregarded and violated by this lawless rover, which, though built in and sailing from England, has no acknowledged flag or recognized nationality, nor any accessible port to which to send any ship she may seize, nor any legal tribunal to adjudge her captures. Under the English flag, in which they confided, and by the torch of the incendiary, appealing to their humanity, our merchantmen have been lured to destruction.

She was built and fitted out in British ports in flagrant violation of British law and of the royal proclamation of neutrality, and I have reason to believe that her crew is composed almost exclusively of British subjects, or persons who, pursuing a loyal voyage, would be entitled to ship and receive protection to British seamen.

Before this piratical cruiser left Great Britain, the authorities of that country were informed by the recognized official agents of this government of her character and purposes. The British Government, thus invoked, came too late to prevent her sailing. To what extent, under these circumstances, the government of Great Britain is bound in honor and justice to make indemnification for the destruction of private property which this lawless vessel may perpetrate, is a question that may present itself for disposal. It is alluded to now and here, not only from a sense of duty towards our commercial interests and rights, but also by reason of the fact that recent intelligence indicates that still other vessels of a similar character are being fitted out in British ports to depredate upon our commerce.

Our own cruisers not being permitted to remain in British ports to guard against these outrages, nor to coal while cruising, nor to repair damages in their harbors when injuries are sustained, the arrest of them is difficult and attended with great uncertainty. This Department has dispatched cruisers to effect the capture of the Alabama, and there is now quite a fleet on the ocean in pursuit of her.

AN ALPHABETICAL LIST OF THE IRON-CLAD NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following is a list of the iron-clads of the American navy, now in service and in process of construction:

	Name.	Guns.	Tons.	Where located.
1.	Agamenticus.....	4	1,564	Portsmouth, N. H.
2.	Benton.....	16	1,000	Western flotilla.
3.	Baron de Kalb...	13	512	Western flotilla.
4.	Chilicothe.....	2	303	Cincinnati.
5.	Chickasaw s.....	4	970	St. Louis.
6.	Catskill.....	2	844	Greenpoint.
7.	Camanche	2	844	Jersey City.
8.	Cairo.....	13	512	Western flotilla.
9.	Cincinnati.....	13	512	Western flotilla.
10.	Carondelet.....	13	512	Western flotilla.
11.	Canonicus	2	1,034	Boston.
12.	Catawba.....	2	1,034	Cincinnati.
13.	Dictator.....	2	3,033	New York.

	Name.	Guns.	Tons.	Where located.
14.	Dunderberg.....	10	5,090	New York.
15.	Essex	7	1,000	Western flotilla.
16.	Galena.....	7	738	Mystic.
17.	Indianola	2	442	Cincinnati.
18.	Keokuk.....	2	677	New York.
19.	Kickapoo.....	4	970	St. Louis.
20.	Louisville.....	13	468	Western flotilla.
21.	Lexington	7	500	Western flotilla.
22.	Monitor	2	776	New York.
23.	Mound City	13	512	Western flotilla.
24.	Marietta.....	2	479	Pittsburg.
25.	Milwaukee.....	4	970	St. Louis.
26.	Montauk	2	970	Greenpoint.
27.	Manhattan	2	1,034	New York.
28.	Mohopac	2	1,034	New York.
29.	Manyunk	2	1,034	Brownsville, Pa.
30.	Monadnock.....	4	1,564	Boston Navy Yard.
31.	Miantonomah ...	4	1,564	N. Y. Navy Yard.
32.	Nantucket.....	2	844	Boston.
33.	Nahant	2	844	Boston.
34.	Neosho.....	2	523	St. Louis.
35.	New Ironsides...	18	3,486	Philadelphia.
36.	Ozark.....	2	578	Mound City.
37.	Osage.....	2	523	St. Louis.
38.	Onondaga	4	1,250	Greenpoint.
39.	Patapsco.....	2	844	Wilmington.
40.	Passaic.....	2	844	Greenpoint.
41.	Puritan.....	4	3,265	New York.
42.	Pittsburg.....	13	512	Western flotilla.
43.	Roanoke.....	6	3,435	New York.
44.	Sandusky.....	2	470	Pittsburg.
45.	Sangamon.....	2	844	Chester, Pa.
46.	Tonawanda	4	1,564	Philadelphia.
47.	Tecumseh.....	2	1,034	New York.
48.	Winnebago	4	970	St. Louis.
49.	Weehawken	2	844	Jersey.
	NOT NAVAL VESSELS.			
50.	Stevens' submerging battery....	8	4,000	Hoboken.
51.	Naugatuck.....	3	300	Hoboken.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE.

WOOL GROWING IN CALIFORNIA.

In October last the wool growers association of California, had their annual meeting, and the directors in their report give us some information of general interest. It will be remembered that during the winter of 1861–62, the entire coast of California was visited by a succession of storms of unparalleled severity; all of the valley lands were flooded for weeks, and the uplands in many localities were covered for several days at a time with snow.

The result of these storms and floods was, as the directors tell us, an immense destruction of sheep and lambs in all parts of the State. These losses were less by drowning in the flood—though entire flocks were thus swept away—than by exposure to the protracted storm and insufficient food. In some localities the sheep thus weakened and prostrated were attacked by a species of rot, and flocks that might otherwise have survived the winter were decimated or destroyed.

The directors say that they have made considerable effort to get an absolute inventory of these losses, and have reports from three hundred and sixty-nine farms—ninety-two received by letters, two hundred and seventy-seven obtained by personal visit. The aggregate loss obtained from these 369 farms is, of old sheep, 122,100; lambs, 105,189—total, 229,289, and this comprises less than one-third of the sheep farms of the State, while many of the reports given in were known to be largely under the actual loss. If these estimates are correct, we may conclude that there was a total loss in the State of about 700,000 sheep and lambs.

The receipts of wool at San Francisco since January 1st have been 22,408 bales, averaging 205 pounds		4,593,640
The shipments for the same period have been 16,075 bales, averaging 245 pounds.....		3,938,375
Retained for home manufacture.....		655,265
The clip of 1862 is estimated as follows:		
Total amount received as above.....		4,593,640
Fall clip yet to come, about.....		1,000,000
Total receipts for the year		5,593,640
Deduct for fall clip of 1861, shipped from San Francisco from January 1st to April 1st.....	324,000	
For wool received from Oregon and other places	150,000	
		494,000
Total product of California for 1862		5,119,640
" " for 1861		4,600,000

The average annual increase of the wool clip for four or five years previous was nearly forty-six per cent. Had there been, therefore, the same increase the past year, the amount produced would have reached 6,440,000 pounds instead of 5,119,640. This deficit the directors of the association explain by the fact of the very large loss of stock caused by the storms and floods above refered to.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

A NEW YORK MERCHANT—AN HONEST MAN.

It is refreshing to meet an honest man. The following from the *Evening Post* would indicate that there is one alive even now. God, bless him!

About thirty years ago a very respectable firm doing business in Pearl-street was compelled under then existing circumstances to suspend payment; they paid a respectable dividend, and the creditors were satisfied that they were honest, although unfortunate, and balanced their books by profit and loss. Yesterday I received the following note:

New York, December 23, 1862.

On looking over my accounts I find a balance of your account not paid. For it I inclose a check for one hundred and forty-one dollars ($141,) which is in full. Please say if it reaches you.

Yours, respectfully, * * * *

I called to assure the gentleman that I had received the check, when I learned that this was among the last of his payments. He informed me that he adopted the plan of paying the largest assessments first, as the creditors in such cases had been put to the greatest inconvenience. There was one house in Boston to which he owed a considerable amount, which had also failed, and a partner in which had subsequently died, leaving a widow and a number of children in a destitute condition. His remembrance of them was truly "Feeding the widow and the fatherless."

It is very refreshing to have occasionally a bright spot shining in our pathway through this dark and degenerate age, where self seems to rule triumphant.

When I took him by the hand and congratulated him on his high and honorable conduct, I felt a particularly and happy influence, knowing I had an honest man by the hand, which is the "noblest work of God."

I hope this example will induce others to do likewise.

FEDERAL FINANCES EXAMINED.

The article in our last number entitled "Federal Finances Examined" appears to have elicited unusual and very favorable notice. From the following, however, which we find in the Utica *Morning Herald*, it will be seen that one person at least does not like it.

"Hunt's for this month presents an unusually strong array of able articles on commercial and financial topics, and comes fully up to the high standard of the times of Freeman Hunt's editorship. An excellent contribution on 'The Advance Value of Gold,' is contributed by A. B. Johnson of this city. We regret to notice the prominence given to a most unjust partizan assault on the Secretary of the Treasury, in an article entitled 'Federal Finances Examined.' It bears unmistakable traces of the pen of the author of 'Southern Wealth and Northern Profits,' a notorious secesh missile issued just on the eve of the rebellion, and largely quoted through the South as justifying secession. The commercial and financial summary prepared monthly under the caption 'Commercial Chronicle and Review,' carries the features of the same author and loses much of its value from its

systematic perversion of facts to suit rebel politics. With these exceptions the Magazine continues to merit the high reputation it has always enjoyed."

The Magazine is, and always has been, even when the sentiments are not endorsed by the editor, open to the discussion of all questions, particularly those which, like the federal finances, affect every individual in the country. The *Herald* alleges that the article contains an "unjust partisan assault upon Mr. CHASE." This we have failed to discover. If the *Herald* can justify its allegation we should be pleased to hear from it. It is very easy to denounce matter as a "perversion of facts." Applied generally the phrase has no meaning; to point out and specify may lead to correction and justify the truth of history.

The *Herald* is also mistaken in relation to what it calls a "secesh missile." That work, if we remember, was published more than a year before the Presidential election, and was subsequenly, when secession was determined on, repudiated at the South as the strongest Union document which had been published. Its dissemination in the North was dreaded as likely to defeat the aims of those who were determined on war.

OUR MINERAL RESOURCES.

The Secretary of the Interior, in his report referring to the immense development that has taken place in the mineral resources of the country, says, that after extensive inquiry from all available sources of information, the production of gold during the present year from the auriferous region which embraces Dacotah, Nebraska, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, California, Oregon, and Washington, may be set down at $100,000,000. If an amount of labor relatively equal to that expended in California had been applied to the gold fields already known to exist outside that State, it is believed that the production of this year, including that of California, would have exceeded $400,000,000. The Secretary thinks that these vast mines of wealth may be made available to aid in liquidating our national debt. Of the several modes suggested for making these lands productive to the government he specifies three, viz.: The granting of leases by the government, the collection of a certain portion of the proceeds of the mines, and the absolute sale of the land in small lots. It has been estimated, he says, that at least $500,000,000 could be realized by the sale of the lands in one acre lots, after granting to those who are now engaged in mining a clear title, without cost, to the lands they occupy. The subject is one of transcendant importance, in view of the enormous increase that is daily being made to the public burdens, and should at once receive the attention of Congress.

The report suggests the necessity of immediate legislation in connection with another class of mineral riches to be found in the public domain —namely, the extensive coal fields known as the Mount Diablo Mines, on the Joaquin River, within forty miles of San Francisco. It shows that our steamers on the Pacific, which are now furnished with coal from Pennsylvania at twenty dollars a ton, can be readily supplied from these mines at twelve. It also recommends that that portion of the public lands of Texas, amounting to one hundred millions of acres, which remains unsold, and which, the Secretary says, owing to the treason of its people, is properly subject to confiscation, shall be declared forfeited to the United States, and placed under the operation of the Homestead law.

THE BOOK TRADE.

Manual of Geology; Treating of the Principles of the Science with Special Reference to American Geological History. By JAMES D. DANA, M. A., L.L.D. SILLIMAN, Professor of Geology and Natural History in Yale College, Author of a "System of Mineralogy," of "Reports of WILKES's Exploring Expedition on Geology, on Zoophytes, on Crustacea," &c. Illustrated by a Chart of the World, and over One Thousand Figures, mostly from American Sources. Philadelphia: THEODORE BLISS & Co. London: TRUBNER & Co., 1863.

Professor DANA's book comes to us in beautiful shape from the press of THEODORE BLISS & Co., of Philadelphia; the paper is excellent, the type clear, the binding extremely tasteful—a noble work, worthily presented.

The scientific world at home and abroad, has been waiting and watching long for the present volume. There have been State reports, and partial geological accounts, but nothing that could begin to fill the place of a full and complete American Geological History. The arrangement of the Manual is admirable, and strictly original; the convenience of the ordinary reader has been consulted by putting the more general and popular information in large type, while many additional details for the closer student are printed in finer text. There is beside, an invaluable synopsis of the whole in the appendix, to be used by teachers and scholars in a short course of instruction, or more generally, as a compendium for reference.

Among the minor benefits which the volume will confer, is that of furnishing a standard nomenclature for the numerous geological collections. Heretofore, every fourth fossil in the country has carried an interrogation mark after its name—painful proof of the undecided condition of that portion of the science, and of the troubled state of the possessor's mind. It is our candid belief, that few of life's burdens weigh so heavily upon the heart of a Geologist, professional or amateur, as the misgiving that he has put the wrong name to his favorite fossil. We foresee great peace and endless employment for all these good people, during the coming winter evenings, in the labor of re-labelling their pets upon a high and unimpeachable authority.

The full value of such a work from such a source is too great, and too strongly felt to require asserting here; it combines the result of years of patient toil, of devoted love for the subject, of profound research, and of indefatigable personal investigation. The immense celebrity which has been won by the Reports on the Exploring Expedition, and the exclusive use of the mineralogy in many of the best Universities in Europe, are merely indications of the stand which the Geology will take among the noted works of the century, and in the estimation of scientific men everywhere; while to those who are in the least familiar with the personal history of the author, the book must have a peculiar and vivid interest. It has been delayed again, and again, and again—by arduous professional duties, by journeyings abroad, by domestic bereavement, by broken health. Through all, and in despite of all, the work has at length been accomplished; so laboriously, so faithfully, and so completely, that it is an achievment worth living for; a monument of patience, of genius, and of learning; a noble service to the present age; a legacy for generations to come.

Eyes and Ears. By HENRY WARD BEECHER. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS, 1863.

This volume is a collection of numerous short articles, the majority of which have already appeared in the columns of the *Ledger* or the *Independent*. They embrace a very wide diversity of topics, and are written in BEECHER's peculiarly fresh and racy style. Among the best are the papers on "Modern Conveniencies and First Class Houses," "Our Housekeeping Experience," "My Pockets," and "The Dandelion and I." Occasionally one encounters those little effervescences popularly styled Beecherisms, which sensible people will not make objections to. If all birds were of one kind, and all men of one mind, society would be placid, but tedious. Everybody hates to be hit in the face with a champagne cork, but nobody on that account discards the use of champagne; they excuse the pop, out of regard to the sparkle that prompts it. For the same reason we ourselves entertain a tender charity toward the little isms above referred to, and firmly believe that men who have more life and brightness than their neighbors, cannot always prevent a little overflow of it.

The Poems of Oliver Wendell Holmes. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS, 1862.

The little Doctor in Blue and Gold! We are delighted to see him, as we should be, whatever he came in; whether velvet or homespun, it is always the same to us. In his court attire he is gayer, but not more dear than in the old brown Ticknor-dress of other days. The pretty little volume contains what all who love Dr. HOLMES' poems will value—a portrait of the author, not altogether flattering, but faithful enough to recall his face to those who have seen him, and to give a reasonably correct impression of it to those who as yet are familiar only with his name and his works.

The Canoe and the Saddle; Adventures among the Northwestern Rivers and Forests, and Isthmiana. By THEODORE WINTHROP, author of "Cecil Dreeme," "John Brent," and "Edwin Brothertoft." Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS, 1863.

We are not as well pleased with this book of Mr. WINTHROP's, as with many of his former productions. Both talent and originality are to be found in it, but the former is spasmodic, and the latter eccentric. A musical friend sitting by, says, "Mr. WINTHROP's style is so *staccato* that it almost jars one to read it;" and that is perhaps as just a criticism as can be passed upon it. There is an altogether superfluous amount of the miserable jargon called Chinook, which, with its inevitable translation always following, makes many pages tedious, that otherwise would not be so. The subject of the book—the author's adventures among the Indians of the Northwest, and his wanderings about the Isthmus of Panama—cannot fail to have a certain degree of interest to every one; but as a whole, the volume is valuable chiefly on account of the subsequent personal history of Mr. WINTHROP, and because it is necessary to complete the set of his works, which Messrs. TICKNOR and FIELDS have issued in such a particularly tasteful form.

The New Gymnastics for Men, Women, and Children. With a translation of Prof. KLOSS's Dumb Bell Instructor, and Prof. SCHREBER's Pangymnastikon. By DIO LEWIS, M. D., Boston. With Three Hundred Illustrations. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS, 1862.

We are delighted with Dr. LEWIS' book, with the new inducements it offers to all to seek greater health and vigor, and the perfect plainness of the rules set down for their guidance. Not only does the author translate the text of Prof. SCHREBER's elaborate treatise on the Pangymnastikon, but he also describes very minutely the simple gymnastic apparatus which is meant to combine in itself every feature neces-

sary for perfect muscular development, so that by the aid of this book, people may practice at home nearly all of the exercises advocated. In fact, by following the rules laid down, one can easily have a gymnasium in any room of one's house, for the apparatus described may be put up without defacing the walls in the least, and removed again in a moment when desired. To all, then, of our readers who regard the physical development of those about them, (and who does not?) this book will be found to be of great assistance. At the same time, we may say that we are far from advocating the extreme physical culture which appears to be in vogue at present. We cannot convince ourselves that man's highest mission on earth is to carry four of his neighbors at a time on his back, or to tie himself up in bow-knots; and if the true culture cannot be combined, we would choose the mental at the expense of the physical. It is certainly far better to be a suffering spirit, than a painless brute. But fortunately our choice is not limited to these extremes. Even our burdened men of business and women of cares may be renovated, refreshed, and strengthened, mentally, morally, and physically, by a proper attention to the inexorable laws of health and exercise. To all of them we heartily commend Dr. LEWIS' work and practise, as being the most rational, mild, and sensible course of gymnastics which we have ever seen advocated.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED.

The Pirates of the Prairies; or, Adventures in the American Desert. By GUSTAVE AIMARD, Author of "The Prairie Flower," "The Indian Scout," "The Trail Hunter," "The Trapper's Daughter," &c., &c. T. B. PETERSON & BROTHERS, Philadelphia. A. BRADY, 24 Ann-street, New York. Price 50 cents.

Andree de Taverney; or, the Downfall of the French Monarchy; being the final conclusion of the "Countess of Charny," "The Memoirs of a Physician," "The Queen's Necklace," and "Six Years Later." By ALEXANDER DUMAS, Author of the "Iron Mask," &c., &c. Philadelphia: T. B. PETERSON & BROTHERS. Two volumes. Price 50 cents each.

Both of the above publications will be gladly welcomed by all who have read the former works of these authors. Messrs. PETERSON & BROTHERS will send to any one copies of their publications on receipt of the advertised price.

A Letter to the Hon. Benjamin R. Curtis, late Judge of the Supreme Court of the United States, in Review of his recently published Pamphlet on the "Emancipation Proclamation" of the President. By the Hon. CHARLES P. KIRKLAND, of New York. New York: LATIMER BROTHERS & SEYMOUR, Law Stationers, 21 Nassau-street, 1862.

The True and the False. An Oration delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society, at Yale College, July 30, 1862, by CHARLES TRACY, Esq., of New York. Published by the Society. New Haven: Printed by E. HAYES, 426 Chapel-street, 1862.

We wish we had time to notice at large these essays, written as they are, by two of the leading minds of the New York bar. A good lawyer's always expresses his ideas clearly and forcibly; and whether we agree with the conclusions drawn or not, we can never fail to read what he writes with profit and admiration. Mr. KIRKLAND's "Letter" is by far the best reply we have seen to the pamphlet published by Judge CURTIS; and the oration of Mr TRACY gives his own clear thoughts in a pleasant, easy way, upon subjects of never failing interest. We should be glad to see much more from the same hands.

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

FEBRUARY, 1868.

TEA—ITS CONSUMPTION AND CULTURE.

Among the marvels of modern commerce is certainly to be reckoned the extension of the use of tea among the nations of Europe and America. To the ancient nations of Europe it was wholly unknown, and its introduction in comparatively late years, is due to the enterprise of the Dutch, who early in the seventeenth century imported it in small quantities. Towards the middle of the century it made its appearance in London, and in September, 1661, two hundred years ago, Samuel Pepys, Secretary to the Admiralty, in his very entertaining diary has this entry: "I sent for a cup of tea, (a China drink,) of which I had never drank before." This article was served at the best coffee houses, and was charged eight cents per gallon excise duty. Three years later, when the East India Company was working its way to government favor, they presented His Majesty with two pounds two ounces of tea as a present, the munificence of which was duly chronicled, and no doubt Nell Gwynne and the court beauties then concentrated their gossips in the first tea party. Among the topics there discussed, no allusion was made to a second tea party 100 years later, held by His Majesty in Boston Harbor, and which resulted in the use of gunpowder tea exclusively for a season. His Majesty, as well as Mr. Pepys, seem to have approved of the "new drink," since the East India Company three years later, in 1667, were encouraged to order 100 pounds to be sent home by their agent. Unfortunately for tea that company procured a monopoly of the trade, by which it could only be imported into the port of London, and that at a duty of 100 per cent. In 1689 the duty on tea was five cents per pound. In 1700 the consumption had reached 500,000 pounds. In 1775 it reached 13,000,000

pounds, and became the medium of the explosion with the colonies which refused the tax. In 1840 the annual British consumption reached 32,000,000 pounds, and in 1861 the consumption reached 77,949,464 pounds. In other words, the demand increased as much in the last 20 years as in the previous 180 years. The United States stand next to the English as tea consumers, and the demand upon China has, with the combined wants of Europe, risen in a century and-a-half from a nominal quantity to 150,000,000 pounds per annum; yet this increase has been attended with lower prices. The fact points to the marvelous capacity of China to produce tea, and at the same time, suggests the feasibility of domesticating the culture elsewhere to advantage.

There is nothing apparently in the culture or manufacture of tea which should be a bar to its succesful cultivation in the United States, within those latitudes where it seems best to thrive. The culture of the tea plant is very simple and profitable, being a very hardy evergreen, growing readily in the open air between the equator and the 45° of latitude, and resembling the myrtle to some extent. It is a polyandrous plant of the natural order *columniferæ*, and has a white blossom with a yellow style and anthers. The stem is bushy with numerous branches and very leafy, while the leaves are alternate, on short, thick channeled foot stalks and evergreen. The *Camellias* are of the same natural family as the tea tree, and very closely resemble it. They are the only plants liable to be confounded with it by a careful observer. The climate most congenial to it, seems to be between 25° and 33° of latitude, if we may judge from the success of its cultivation in China, where it is confined to five districts, Tokien and Canton for the black tea, and Kiangnan, Kiang-si, and Che-Kiang for green. These districts lie between the latitudes named and 115 and 122 degrees of east longitude. The tea plant botanically is a single specie, and the green and black with their numerous varieties, are production of different localities and modes of treatment. As we before stated, it is remarkably hardy, and flourishes on the high slopes of mountains, where frost and snow prevail three months in the year. Its favorite soil is the poorest yellow sandy loam, impregnated with carbonate of iron. The plant is grown in nurseries either from nuts or cuttings, and when transplanted grows about twelve inches each year. For transplanting hill side ground where the sun shines half the day is selected, and the trees are set out 2,000 to the acre. In the third year the leaves are gathered, and if the tree is flourishing, it will yield 1½ ounces tea, or at the rate of 187 pounds per acre; at four years the tree will give 2½ ounces, or 312 pounds per acre; in the fifth year there may be expected 3 ounces, or 500 pounds per acre; in the sixth year the tree has reached its full bearing, and will give 6 ounces or 750 pounds per acre. The trees are said to live fifty years.

The great demand for tea, and the ease with which it may be raised and gathered, has led to many efforts to introduce its culture elsewhere, and with very considerable success. The Dutch Government some 20 years since introduced its culture into Java. They procured Kokien cultivators for that purpose, and much success attended the effort, although the climate there is probably too warm for the full growth of the plant. The Brazilians introduced the culture near Rio Janerio also by the aid of Chinese laborers. The plant itself was found to prosper in the districts of New Friburgh, St. Paul, and Santos better than in China. It would

there luxuriate in exposure and in any soil without trouble, and an *alqueire* (about an acre) will give, it is said, 160 arrobas of 32 pounds each, worth 50 cents per pound. The tea when first sold in Rio brought $1 50 per pound, but was not considered so good as that from China. The price continued to fall and is now about 50 cents. The improved means of manufacturing the tea was a chief cause of the lower price.

Probably the most successful effort of transplanting the culture was by the English, who introduced it into the Assam country of India with complete success, although great difficulties were for some years encountered through the inroads of the Tartars in that exposed country. In 1841 some Assam tea planters introduced the culture into Darjeeling, and these teas now on exhibition in London meet with marked favor. Some of the original plants set out in that region are now of gigantic size, in some cases 20 feet high and 50 feet in circumference. Although experiments continued to be made on the growth of the tea plant, and seed from Assam and Kumaon was distributed gratuitously by government, it was not till 1856 that the first plantation was started at Kursing, and another near Darjeeling, by Captain SAMLER. The success has been complete, and others have followed in the same path. The manufacture of tea in Darjeeling begins in April and ends in October. During this period twenty pickings of leaves are usually made. The tea of April, May, and October is the finest.

The number of tea plants per acre varies from 1,860 to 2,700, according as they are placed at five or four feet apart. The produce of tea per acre looked for from the first year of manufacture to the fourth or fifth, when a plantation is at maturity, cannot be correctly estimated. The produce per plant in the fourth year of age is variously estimated at half to three ounces. Captain MASSAN, in a memorandum of his operations at Tuckvor, states, "he got last season from a few indigenous Assam plants, grown at an elevation of 5,000 feet above the sea, one pound of manufactured tea from each tree. The trees were seven years old." This is an immense return, and not a usual yield.

Labor is still abundant, and is likely to continue so from the absence of demand in Eastern Nepaul, the great source of supply. The plantations give steady employment to about 3,000 persons, with extra hands occasionally. Wages of coolies 4*s.* 8*d.* to 5*s.* per mensem.

The culture extended from Assam and Darjeeling into other countries of India, and the results up to this time are very clearly shown, in the fact that at the present exhibition in London, there are twenty-eight exhibitors from India besides the government, who exhibit teas of their own growth and manufacture from Kumaon, Gurhwal, and Kangra; in all, there are 142 samples of Indian teas from the provinces of Assam, Cachar, Darjeeling, Dehra, Dhoon, Gurhwal, Kumaon, Kangra, Chota, and Nagpoor. The black varieties are pekoes, souchongs, pouchongs, bohea, and congous. The green teas are hysons, hysonskin, gunpowder, and imperial gunpowder. The result of the examination of these teas is very satisfactory. Many of them exhibit great excellence in manufacture with considerable strength and good flavor; nor is this confined to any, one province. There are no coloring matters used in preparing them, and they are held to be free from adulteration with any other leaf.

Two natives of India are exhibitors—DHATTOO RAM YENIADOR, of Assam; and TANIKOOLLA MOONSHI, of Darjeeling. The Committee re-

port, "Our propositions for awards having been approved by the jury, we look confidently to their being sanctioned by Her Majesty's Commissioners. They have all been made in favor of private exhibitors. We find the teas of the Government of India from Dehra, Dhoon, Gurhwal, Kumaon, and Kangra, with the exception of the Kumaon hysons, deficient in strength, and generally of indifferent flavor. We have good authority for considering them not to be well suited to the London market, in which strength and depth of color in the infusion mainly regulate value. We consider the Assam teas as standing highest in point of strength and depth of color, in infusion next to them, we rank the Dárjeeling teas. They are also of fine flavor, but require still more strength and depth of color to meet the London market."

There were also on exhibition several samples of tea from Australia, where the culture has been introduced, and nineteen from Brazils. The Committee report that these samples give evidence of skill in the manufacture; but that they are bitter and unsavory. They state that neither of them can compete with the British teas. A number of substitutes for tea are exhibited. The well-known Paraguay tea, or "Maté," from Brasil, and nine varieties from the French colonies, viz.: La Réunion, three; Guadaloupe, three; Miquelon, three. The "Maté" is packed in raw hide, with the hair outwards, which is considered the best mode of preserving it for transport. These facts are interesting as indicating the great breadth given to the teaculture, following the success which attended the first attempts in Assamto wrest the monopoly from the Chinese.

The French Government some few years since, sent D. Linntaud to the Brazils to inquire into the culture there, with the view to promote the culture in France, at which place it was introduced about the year 1840, and it still makes progress there.

The soil and climate of the United States have been reputed by those conversant with the culture of tea in Asia, as well adapted to the plant. This is also not a matter of opinion, since the experiment was successfully made by Junius Smith of ocean steam navigation fame. In 1850 that gentleman procured from China a box of tea plants, which arrived in good preservation, and these were set out in his plantation at Greenville, South Carolina, in the month of June; a majority of them took root and made a flourishing growth during the first summer; some of them grew nine inches in three months. At the same time, was planted a quantity of tea nuts, all of which germinated and reached a fair growth during the summer. The whole fully answered the expectations of the enterprising owner, who, unfortunately, did not live to push his enterprise beyond the third year, when he had made some of the finest green tea. This experiment proved that domestication of the plant presents no difficulties, and that its future culture will add greatly to the resources of the country. The California country seems to present the amplest facilities for its extended culture, and with the aid of the Celestials, now so numerous there, it might be rapidly developed. The system required is not to cure the leaves on the plantation, but to gather them for sale to the manufacturers, who perfect them for market in the manner of the Chinese. This manufacture of tea is pushed to great extent in Canton, and in Brazils, by the aid of machinery, the process of curing has been much simplified and cheapened.

The culture and delivery of the tea present no difficulties whatever.

The plant will flourish with little labor, and the leaves are easily picked; at this point manufacture begins. That process requires to be developed when labor is cheap, but it is easy to do so in large cities, where labor can always be commanded. That is the system in Canton. At the time of harvests, the merchants of Canton send their agents through the tea districts to buy up the green leaves, in the same manner that manufacturers in New England send agents to buy up wool, or the hay packers to buy hay. The leaves are gathered in, dried, and packed in boxes of 96 pounds each. When about 600 boxes are collected, or enough to load a *chap.* they are sent to the Canton pack-houses for preparation. Some 30,000 people are there employed in making what are called "Canton made teas," for exportation. This system is well adapted to the circumstances of this country, where the application of mechanical ingenuity would soon cheapen and perfect the manufacture. One of the great sources of complaint in Northern cities, is the inadequate employment for females. There can be no more healthful or suitable employment for numbers than that of making tea, while the means of steam communication are such as bring the whole resources of the country under contribution for a supply of teas. A great advantage to be derived from such a supply, is that the teas sold would be genuine, and not adulterated and be-rubbished, as is now the case, and to which proceedings may be ascribed all the evils to health, which have been alledged against the use of the shrub as a beverage.

The importance of the culture may be estimated, when we reflect that hitherto China has been the sole source of supply for an article which has so rapidly become a necessity of life among all the civilized nations of Western Europe; that its use is daily spreading into new regions, and the quantity per head in old markets increases. The quantity of tea consumed in Great Britain and the United States has been as follows:

	Great Britain.			United States.		
	Population.	Pounds.	Per head. lbs.	Population.	Pounds.	Per head. lbs.
1800....	10,942,636	23,271,790	2¼	5,305,925	.....	.
1810....	12,596,803	22,454,532	1¾	7,239,814	.....	.
1820....	13,391,631	26,754,537	1⅞	9,654,596	4,973,463	½
1830....	16,539,218	29,947,055	1⅞	12,866,620	6,141,808	½
1840....	18,720,394	36,075,677	2	17,069,453	14,510,000	¾
1850....	21,021,201	51,178,215	2½	23,191,876	18,354,000	¾
1860....	29,405,608	77,949,464	2¾	31,445,089	24,587,038	¾

Thus, the consumption in the two countries has increased 75,000,000 pounds in the course of the present century. In the last twenty years important changes have overtaken the tea trade. The chief of these were caused by the modification of the East India Company's charter, and the reduction and removal of duties in England and the United States. In 1833, by the expiration of the East India Company's charter, the monopoly so long held was broken, and the trade was thrown open, an event which it was justly anticipated would cause a fall in price; the *ad valorem* duty was changed for a fixed duty, which it was supposed would yield nearly the same revenue, and 2*s.* 1*d.* per pound was charged. At about the same time that the China trade became free, that is in 1833, the duties which in the United States had been onerous upon tea were

altogether removed, as well as those upon coffee. The effect seemed to be to double the consumption.

The great difficulty in the tea trade has been to furnish goods in payment of the teas. Inasmuch as China produces all goods in abundance, the tea was required formerly to be paid for in coin. This is done now, however, generally in the proportion of $1,000,000 specie shipped to Canton, and $4,000,000 worth of bills drawn on London, which, passing into the hands of the East India Company, form a remittance to London. The trade between England and China is sustained by the large sales of opium to China from India, which more than pays for English tea, and gives a balance paid in silver to England. On the other hand, England usually owes the United States. From this state of the trade between England and the United States and China, it is apparent that, including $11,000,000 worth of opium, China has usually bought more than she paid for in the products of her own labor, and that therefore a uniform drain of specie was kept up in favor of British India. This was disastrous to general trade, because it prevented the Chinese from buying goods. As long as their specie was all taken to pay for Indian opium, a scarcity of money necessarily prevailed among them, and therefore an inability to buy American goods. From the United States trade, therefore, they demanded cash or bills. This difficulty was somewhat enhanced by the fact, that all the trade being confined to Canton, at a great distance from the provinces that consumed most of the goods, caused the merchandise to be subjected to great expense in internal transportation and onerous transit duties; and in fact the revenue thus derived was, too, by the Chinese Government, a reason for locating the trade at that remote corner of the Empire. When, therefore, the English compelled the Chinese to submit to terms, the new treaty was made to embrace the privilege of trading at other ports nearer to the places of consumption; the monopoly of the Hong was abolished, and the trade made comparatively free. The great and surprising success of Mr. CUSHING, Minister to China, in promptly effecting a treaty more favorable to commerce than that of England, further excited the hopes of dealers, and the United States trade thither has much improved. Nevertheless, the internal war in China at times threatens the production of tea and checks the consumption of goods, while the demand for tea as well here as in England and Europe, promises to double every twenty years. This large future demand calls as urgently for some new sources of supply, as does that of cotton. Not only the mere quantity of tea requires to be looked after, but the quality, since a large portion of the increased quantities that China has apparently sent forth, have been due rather to adulteration than to improved growth. When a chop of tea bearing certain marks becomes a general favorite from its good qualities, these marks are as closely imitated and applied to other and inferior chops.

It was formerly the case under the monopoly of the East India Company, that experienced inspectors were employed, who from long practice acquired a readiness in the detection of the slightest shades of qualities not generally attainable. These officers frequently detected adulterations with spurious leaves, both in the green and black teas. The company, however, by offering premiums for the best lots, managed to keep up the quality of both descriptions. About the year 1833–34, however, the cessation of the East India Company's charter threw the trade open to com-

petition in England, and the removal of the duties in this country caused a great improvement in the demand, without the continuance of the necessary surveillance in regard to quality, and manifest depreciation has since taken place. It has always been the custom to color even genuine green teas more or less. The great demand which has of late years sprung up for green teas on American account, has given rise to the most extensive frauds in that article. A quantity of damaged black teas will be taken and dried in baskets over pans of charcoal. The dried leaves, in quantities of a few pounds each, are then placed in heated cast iron pans. A workman stirs the leaves rapidly with the hand, mixing in a small quantity of *tumeric*, which imparts an orange tinge to the leaves. A powder prepared from *Prussian blue*, (Prussiate of iron, a poison,) and gypsum, is then added to the leaves, which are stirred over the fire until they assume the fine bloom color of hyson, with much the same scent. The leaves are then sifted. The first sifting is called hyson skin, and the last young hyson. This fraud is perpetrated on a most extensive scale, and has doubtless given rise to the belief in the injurious nature of green tea. On the importation of the teas into this country, further deceptions are practised in re-packing and re-marking the boxes, by which means inferior teas are made to appear as if in the original China packed boxes. Hyson skin, of good quality, very frequently resembles old hyson, but it is a cheaper tea by fifteen or twenty cents per pound. Fraudulent jobbers erase the printed faces from the hyson skin boxes and reface them "Fine Old Hyson," and in this way sell hyson skin for more than it is worth. The same fraud is practiced in black teas. Souchong is frequently re-faced "Fine Oolong," which enables dishonest dealers to sell such tea for from twelve to twenty cents more than its value.

Tea in the United States was subjected to a heavy duty until 1833, when it being recognized as one of the necessaries of life, the tax was removed altogether. The consumption immediately rose per head, as seen in the above table, from one-half pound per head to nearly one pound per head, but is far behind the rate of consumption in England, where it has always paid a high duty. It remained free of duty until the present war, when twenty cents per pound duty was charged, and this charge, with the rise in exchange and the premium on the gold required to pay duties, have greatly enhanced the price to the consumer, while the portion formerly used at the South has been stopped by the embargo. Hence the consumption for the moment may be supposed to be very much reduced. The future of the trade is however to be judged of from its great increase in years past. If, therefore, at the close of century the population of this country numbers 100,000,000 of tea drinkers, they must find their sources of supply at home, or submit to continued and inconvenient drains of gold and silver to pay for it, since it is not at all likely that the demand for American goods will increase in China in a ratio ad equate to meet the necessary payments.

HEALTH.

NEW YORK versus LONDON.

A LITTLE more than three centuries ago a celebrated Hollander, ERASMUS, admonished the municipality of London that the *Sweating Sickness* which so pertinaciously clung to that city for more than half a century was due to the absence of all provision for cleansing the streets. This ERASMUS is said to have been learned in all knowledge, while he was also an acute original thinker. In a letter to Cardinal WOLSEY's physician, Dr. FRANCIS, he discourses on household arrangements, which, though at that time peculiar to the English metropolis, seems to have so much significance to us, even *now*, that we cannot forbear to quote it:

"I often wonder," he wrote, "and that not without concern, whence it comes to pass that England for so many years hath been continually afflicted with pestilence, and above all with the Sweating Sickness, which seems in a manner peculiar to that country. We read of a city which was delivered from a plague of long continuance by altering the buildings according to the advice of a certain philosopher.

"I am much mistaken if England, by the same method, might not find a cure. First of all they are totally regardless concerning the aspect of their doors and windows to the east, north, &c.; then they build their churches so that they admit not a thorough air, which yet, in GALEN's opinion is very necessary. They glaze a great part of the sides with small panes, designed to admit the light and exclude the wind; but these windows are full of chinks, through which enters a porcelated air, which, stagnating in the room, is more noxious than the wind. As to the floors they are usually made of clay, covered with rushes that grew in fens, which are so lightly moved now and then that the lower part remains sometimes for twenty years together, and in it a collection of spittle, vomit, urine of dogs and men, beer, scraps of fish, and other filthiness not to be named. Hence, upon change of weather a vapor is exhaled very pernicious, in my opinion, to the human body. Add to this that England is not only surrounded by the sea, but in many parts is fenny and intersected with streams of a brackish water; and that salt fish is the common and favorite food of the poor. I am persuaded that the island would be far more healthy if the use of these rushes were quite laid aside, and the chambers so built as to let in the air on two or three sides, with such glass windows as might either be thrown quite open, or kept quite shut, without small crevices to let in the wind. For as it is useful sometimes to admit a free air, so it is to exclude it. The common people laugh at a man who complains that he is affected by changeable and cloudy weather, but for my part, for these thirty years past, if I ever entered into a room which had been uninhabited for some months, immediately I grew feverish. It would also be of great benefit if the lower people could be persuaded to eat less of salt fish, and if public officers were appointed to see that the streets were kept free from mud and ——, and that not only in the city but in the suburbs. You will smile perhaps, and think that my time lies upon my hands, since I employ it in such speculations; but I have a great affection for a county which received me

so hospitably for a considerable time, and I shall be glad to end the remainder of my days in it, if it be possible. Though I know you to be better skilled in these things than I pretend to be, yet I could not forbear from giving you my thoughts, that, if we are both of a mind, you may propose the project to men in authority, since even princes have not thought such regulations to be beneath their inspection."*

Three centuries have carried the world high up in the scale of civilization. During the interval what has science not accomplished for the well-being of man? What have the spread of intelligence, the labor of missionaries, the intercommunication of thought, the better understanding of nations and classes, not wrought for the happiness of the human race? To dwell upon human progress for the last three centuries, is to behold at a glance the spoils of as noble a victory as ever rewarded patient endurance, unflinching energy, and heroic devotion. All along during the progress, examples might be given of the advantages of treating health on principle. A corresponding change in health and duration of life of the total mass of society has equally occurred.

The city of New York has been for well nigh fifty years, in a condition scarcely above what London was three centuries ago. Like it too, have been the "men in authority," and the "public officers" in their heedlessness of recommendations of men, who, like ERASMUS, venture to call attention to the circumstances which cause such frightful mortality. Had the advice of such men been heeded, New York to-day would doubtless number at least one-third more of population, in persons who have been carried off by diseases wholly avoidable under proper sanitary regulations. Besides this, there would be the additional prosperity and happiness of the community—which have been squandered together with human life, until our faithless "authorities" and "officials" are either blind to its appreciation, or else they seek to blind others by cunningly devised statistics, in order to establish the security of their own positions.

To whatever extent the duration of human life is diminished by noxious agencies, so much productive power is lost, and every community is poor and powerless in the reverse ratio to the average duration of life. Every death under the age of fifteen years carries with it a positive loss, because previous to this age subsistence involves a cost—a direct outlay—whilst, if life is preserved, a productive member of society is added and remuneration rendered. And if the probabilities of life are so low as to make the average adult age young, the proportion of widowhood and orphanage is correspondingly increased, and the productive members of society proportionately burdened. In short, premature deaths cut right into the center of commercial prosperity. Had FULTON died in his infancy, or MORSE before his great invention, the world might have long remained ignorant of the loss sustained by a premature death. Besides, a large infantile mortality presuppose sickly, feeble lives to the survivors—incapable of vigorous exertion, and frequently interrupted by periods of illness and debility. The man, in such a community, whose life has not exceeded forty years, has had many periods of inability and sickness before its close; and as a rule, short lived persons have more years of inability and uselessness than the long lived, for among healthy men, it is common to observe individuals accomplish great labors in comparatively old age.

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* MALCOM'S "London," pp. 459-60.

The preservation of human life is the strongest test by which to measure the efficiency of all institutions devoted to the accomplishment of temporal aid to mankind; and the duration of life is the most expressive testimony to the success with which they accomplish their objects. Burdens are created, and costs entailed upon the industrious survivors of every community, in direct ratio with a high mortality, and the pecuniary costs of pernicious influences may always be measured by the charges attendant on the duration of life and the reduction of the period of working ability; the cost will include, also, much of the attendant vice and crime, as well as the destitution which comes within the province of pauper support. The aggregate happiness and general prosperity of everything that makes life dear is in proportion to the duration of human life; and if on examination, we find that in London the average duration of human life is one-fifth greater than it is in New York, we may safely conclude that the people of London have at least a fifth more of all the elements of happiness and well-being which it is the object of humane institutions to produce.

The earliest reliable data of the mortality of Great Britain, was for *select* lives only, under the "Million Act" of 1695. The mortality which is recorded to have taken place among the nominees under this act—among healthy persons selected from the middle ranks of society—was about one in thirty-seven. In 1780 the annual mortality of England and Wales was one in forty. In 1790 it diminished to one in forty-five. In 1801, to one in forty-seven; the moderate improvement during this decade, is doubtless attributable to the great scarcity with which England was afflicted in 1795 and 1800; it was more than made up, however, by the succeeding ten years of plenty, for in 1811 the mortality had diminished to one in fifty, and in 1821 to one in fifty-eight. Giving an increase of viability in England and Wales from 1780 to 1821, of nearly one-third in forty years.

The decline of mortality in London was more marked. In the year 1697 there were in that city 21,000 deaths; whereas, a century later, in 1797, there were only 17,000 deaths, notwithstanding there was a large increase of population. Yet from 1720 to 1750 the death rate of London increased. At the latter period, 1750, the annual mortality of London was about one in twenty! Greater even than it was half a century before. This terrible mortality has been, probably with justice, attributed to intemperance; and this vice was at that time deemed one of the chief arguments for the imposition of high duties on alcoholic liquors. Whether it was really true that intemperance, which was at that time general in England, was or was not the cause of the then great mortality, it is at any rate quite certain that from the time of the imposition of high duties on alcoholic liquors, may be dated the gradual and constant decline of the annual mortality of London.

From 1750 to 1800 the mortality decreased from one in twenty to one in thirty. In 1811 it was one in thirty-eight; and in 1821, about one in forty—a ratio which continued with slight variation until the next great impetus—the carrying out of the new poor law, which began in 1838. Under this law, medical men of known competency were authorized to collect evidence on certain social conditions believed to be favorable to pauperism; and the evidence when logically collated, presented an amount of proof perfectly irresistable. And then it was, for the first time, that the doctrine of Erasmus was received and elaborated, that disease was not inevitable; that its physical causes were removable. The year following, further

inquiry was instituted by the appointment of commissioners by the government, to ascertain the comparative health of trades; of the inmates of dwellings, factories, tenements, and lodging houses; the bearings of rents, wages, and expenditures on health and longevity; and the means of cleanliness and decency. Whether the comforts of home tended to withdraw the laborer from the beer shop and the habits of improvidence to which it leads? Whether residents in separate and improved tenements are superior in condition as compared with persons who hold merely lodgings, or who reside with other families in the same house? Whether there was a proper supply of water for the purposes of cleanliness, and whether the surrounding lands were properly drained? Whether there was efficient ventilation, and due regard to warmth? Whether there were proper receptacles for garbage, &c., in connection with the houses? Whether tenement houses were overcrowded, and several families or persons occupying the space which would only properly suffice for a smaller number? Whether there were inferior lodging houses, underground or otherwise, crowded by mendicants and vagrants? Whether there was a gross want of cleanliness in the persons or habitations of *certain classes?* Whether there was a habit of keeping swine, &c., in dwelling houses, or close to the windows and doors? Such were a few only of the queries addressed to the physicians and others who assisted in the preliminary investigations which began the great modern sanitary reform measures of England.

In 1842 appeared the first "Report on the Sanitary Condition of the Laboring Population of Great Britain;" and following this quickly succeeded other "Reports," elaborating the investigations and facts that had preceded, till grim Death's harvest fields, in all their hideousness, were laid bare to public view; and then opened the sanitary campaign.

But not so, New York. CHADWICK'S annual reports, and other colaborers in the work of sanitary reform, have fallen upon New York as did the letter of ERASMUS on London three centuries ago. Four years ago, a select committee from the State Senate were appointed to investigate the Health Department of the city of New York, and the published report of that committee, made an exhibit no less convincing than that which was made by the pioneers of sanitary reform in London twenty years earlier, while it showed a mortality nearly as appalling as that of London in 1750; and like it too, it had been increasing for the last preceding fifty years. In 1810 the ratio of mortality to the population in the city of New York was one in forty-six, and from that time it gradually increased, until in 1854 it was one in twenty-two! Since 1854, it has varied from one in twenty-seven to *about* one in thirty-nine for the year 1862. The latest report of our much respected City Inspector, would appear to establish, for the last three years at least, a better condition of things than that above indicated. "The *estimated* population of London," he states, "according to the last report of the Registrar General, is about 2,774,338.

"The *estimated* population of this city is *over* 1,000,000, but we put it down at that number *which is accredited to it by the Census Bureau at Washington.* (*?*)

DEATHS IN LONDON TO EACH MILLION OF POPULATION.

	Total deaths.	To the million.
1858	64,098	$23,102\frac{1}{7}$
1859	62,616	$22,569\frac{3}{4}$
1860	63,100	$22,744\frac{1}{4}$

DEATHS IN NEW YORK TO EACH MILLION OF POPULATION.

1860.... 22,710 | 1861..... 22,117 | 1862..... 21,244

"London excess, 2,344, or 781 in each year."

The first fallacy in this estimate is to take the years 1860, 1861, and 1862, of New York, to compare with 1858, 1859, and 1860, of London. The next most glaring fallacy, is the "*estimated*" population. The Census Report for 1860, just issued from the "Census Bureau at Washington," estimates the population of New York City at 805,651; and the per cent of increase from 1850 to 1860 at 56.27. It is evident, therefore, that the only way to make an approximate comparison of the mortality of New York with London, is to take corresponding years and the *officially estimated* population instead of mere surmise. Thus compared, the deaths in New York to each million of the population for—

1858, were, (according to the City Inspector's Report,).....	22,196
1859, " " " "	21,645
1860, " " " "	22,710
Total deaths for three years.....	66,551

About one in 36.50 for the three years. The aggregate mortality of London for the corresponding period was 189,814, or about one in forty-four.

Considering the efficiency of the Privy Council of London, in the promotion of all measures calculated to diminish the mortality, there can be no question but that the statistics of London for 1861–62, are equally in advance of New York as compared with former years. To this efficiency in London, the City Inspector himself bears witness. "In London and Paris," he states, "the authorities act upon *every suggestion of the official or officials* in charge as soon as received," etc. But most remarkable of all, is the City Inspector's reasoning, when he tells us that there are not less than 18,000 persons in New York who live in dark and damp cellars, and of a tenement house population—many times greater—furnishing conditions the most favorable to a large mortality, and which are prohibited in London; and, notwithstanding this, he gives a summary apparently intended to convey the idea that, as compared with New York, all the admirable sanitary arrangements of London are ineffectual for the purposes for which they are administered; that New York is, after all, one of the healthiest cities in the world! While the City Inspector's report for the last year certainly shows a diminished mortality as compared with the last two or three preceding ones, it furnishes no evidence in favor of any permanent improvement. On the contrary, during a season of general good health, the mortality of New York diminishes to a certain extent corresponding with other places, yet far above them; and while the same disgraceful conditions, as were so fully developed in the Senate Committee's Report, 1859, are still allowed to continue, there is no good reason to expect anything better. It is certainly to be regretted that the Inspector appears to be opposed to all suggestions for improvement, other than such as are made by the "official or officials in charge," especially so, since so many are prepared to echo his most forcible interrogatory: "Where, in the civilized world, is there to be found a system which *in itself* possesses less ability to carry into effect the important and responsible duties entrusted to it, than is to be found in the one governing the sanitary welfare of this city?"

THE PORT OF NEW YORK, PAST AND PRESENT.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.*

THE trade at this port the past year, compared with former years, presents many striking contrasts. It is necessary, however, to remember, in making these comparison, that the shipments are now reckoned in currency, while the imports are reckoned, as formerly, at the old standard rates for foreign coin. Without bearing this in mind we do not reach correct conclusions as to the balance of trade.

FOREIGN IMPORTS.

It will be seen that the total imports for the year 1862 are $174,652,317, which is an increase of about $12,000,000 over 1861; notwithstanding there is a decrease this year, compared with last year, of over $35,000,000 in specie. The actual gain, therefore, in receipts of merchandise (other than specie,) in 1862 over 1861, is upwards of $47,500,000. In dutiable goods there will be found to be a greater increase than this, while there is a falling off in free goods, owing to the cutting down of the free list under the new tariff. The following table gives the comparison for the past ten years:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK.

Year.	Dutiable.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1853...	$179,512,412	$12,156,387	$2,429,083	$194,097,652
1854...	163,494,984	15,768,916	2,107,572	181,371,472
1855...	142,900,661	14,103,946	855,631	157,860,238
1856...	193,839,646	17,902,578	1,814,425	213,556,649
1857...	196,279,362	21,440,734	12,898,033	230,618,129
1858...	128,578,256	22,024,691	2,264,120	152,867,067
1859...	213,640,363	28,708,732	2,816,421	245,165,516
1860...	201,401,683	28,006,447	8,852,330	238,260,460
1861...	95,326,459	30,353,918	37,088,413	162,768,790
1862...	149,970,415	23,291,625	1,390,277	174,652,317

Of the imports for this year, foreign dry goods of course form, as in former years, an important item. The total value, however, of dry goods landed here during the last twelve months is less than half the value imported in 1859, and (with the exception of 1861, when the receipts were less than for any previous year on record,) they were less last year than they have been any year since 1849. The following table will show the invoiced value of dry goods received in each year since 1849:

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* For detailed statements of the trade for the past year, see this number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, page 187. Last year's tables will be found in vol. xlvi., page 273, etc.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK.

Year.	Invoiced value.	Year.	Invoiced value.	Year.	Invoiced value.
1849....	$44,435,571	1854...	$80,842,936	1859....	$113,152,624
1850....	60,106,375	1855...	64,974,062	1860....	103,927,100
1851....	62,846,731	1856...	93,362,893	1861....	43,636,689
1852....	61,654,144	1857...	90,534,129	1862....	56,121,227
1853....	93,704,211	1858...	60,154,509		

The description of goods, and the relative totals in each of the last three years, are shown by the following table:

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THREE YEARS.

Description of goods.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Manufactures of wool ...	$34,975,011	$16,720,931	$25,718,592
" cotton ..	18,415,258	7,192,524	8,501,512
" silk	35,582,035	13,334,411	11,568,807
" flax	8,952,812	3,580,303	7,666,946
Miscellaneous dry goods .	6,901,984	2,808,520	2,665,370
Total imports.....	$103,927,100	$42,636,689	$56,121,227

EXPORTS TO FOREIGN PORTS.

For the year 1862 the exports are the largest ever recorded. There is a gain over 1861 (a year that was beyond all precedent,) of more than $18,000,000 in produce, and $55,000,000 in specie. It must be remembered however, as we stated above, that the exports of produce and merchandise are reckoned in currency, while the imports are reckoned in gold, if we would reach a correct conclusion as to the condition of our trade with foreign ports. The following will show the quarterly shipments of produce and merchandise for four years:

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS, EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE.

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
1st quarter.....	$13,725,642	$20,827,086	$33,477,742	$32,075,568
2d "	17,883,621	22,740,760	33,123,489	29,798,344
3d "	17,637.253	26,079,326	30,075,918	45,313,299
4th "	18,733,805	33,845,108	41,917,752	49,747,611
Total.....	$67,980,321	$103,492,280	$138,594,901	$156,934,822

We give below the totals for four years, separating the foreign free and dutiable, specie, etc.:

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Domestic produce.....	$59,929,531	$95,468,296	$131,235,995	$149,179,591
Foreign free.....	2,999,881	2,858,710	2,154,947	2,853,848
Foreign Dutiable.....	5,050,969	5,765,274	5,203,959	4,901,383
Specie and bullion.....	69,715,866	42,191,171	4,236,250	59,437,021
Total	$137,696,187	$145,683,451	$142,831,151	$216,371,843

The following table gives the export each month for four years:

TOTAL EXPORTS.

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
January	$6,419,696	$6,876,024	$11 202,737	$14.888,437
February	6,107,060	7,652,879	11,907,233	14,182,843
March	9,219,678	10,510,417	11,831,394	11,980,714
April	13,033,866	10,370,415	11,109,679	12.703,797
May	17,335,782	11,900,317	11,732,595	15,832,097
June	12,691,153	17,836,546	12,067,031	20,332,375
July	15,602,393	14,463.199	10,028,000	23,681,915
August	12,602,393	15,734,980	9,890,448	17,483,701
September	14,037,497	13,658,679	10,187.846	19,061,471
October	10.832,256	12,662.653	13,172,452	26,797,936
November	10,523,560	12,272,177	14.577,291	20,608,942
December	9,167,400	11,745,165	15,124,445	18,939,615
Total	$137,696,187	$145.683,451	$142,931,151	$216,371,843

ARRIVALS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR 1862.

To Mr. ANDREW W. TROTTER, the boarding officer at the United States Revenue Barge Office, Whitehall, we are indebted for the following complete table of arrivals from foreign ports during the year 1862. For the years 1860 and 1861 see *Merchants' Magazine*, vol. 46, page 273:

War steamers	27	Brigs	1,566
War vessels	2	Galliots	3
Steamers	266	Schooners	1,239
Ships	1,092	Barges	1
Barks	1,296		
Barkentines	15	Total	5,487

Of the war steamers there were British	4
" " " French	18
" " " Haytien	1
" " " Norwegian	1
" " " Spanish	2
" " " Swedish	1
War vessels, French	1
" Spanish	1
Total	29

Steamers	266	Galliots	3
Ships	1,092	Schooners	1,239
Barks	1,290	Barges	1
Barkentines	15		
Brigs	1,566	Total	5,458

Passengers per steamers	37,650
" sailing vessels	56,957
Total passengers	94,607

	Vessels.	Passengers.
1861	5,120	80,790
1862	5,487	91,607

There also arrived from domestic ports 1,776 steamers.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

CONDITION OF TREASURY—OFFICIAL VIEWS—APPROPRIATIONS—EFFECT OF DEPRECIATION—RISE IN PRICES—TABLE OF 55 ARTICLES—DEFICITS—CAPITAL IN THE COUNTRY—INVESTED—PROPORTION DEMANDED—DANGER OF PANIC—DEBT PAID IN GOLD—AMOUNT OF DEBT—MODE OF BORROWING—PRICES OF STOCKS—GOLD INVESTMENTS—RATE OF BORROWING—MR. HOOPER'S BILL—NEW CURRENCY PROPOSED—MOVEMENT OF SPECIE—RATES OF EXCHANGE—IMPORTS AT THE PORT—DUTIES PER CENT—COST OF IMPORT—UNCERTAINTY OF PRICES—EXPORTS—SPECIE ABROAD.

THE condition of the Federal Treasury, and the consequent evils which are impending as the results of national bankruptcy, are creating daily a higher degree of solicitude in the public mind. The more so that the three leading financial authorities of the government, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Chairman of Committee of Ways and Means, and Mr. SPAULDING, the mouth piece of the committee, seem to have no very clear ideas of the effect of present legislation, nor what may flow from further movements. All of them confound the paper issues of the government with capital, and seem to measure the amount which they may borrow by what they owe. They all of them are anxious to get clear of the responsibility of further paper issues, yet they all agreed that there was no alternative with which to meet the pressing claims of the soldiers and other public creditors for pay. While making these admissions, and admitting the evils of paper money, they do not make their estimates of future expense in accordance with the effect of paper depreciation. Mr. SPAULDING is the most frank in relation to the public wants, but his enormous figures fall very short of the truth. He stated officially that the wants of the government are as follows:

Deficits and appropriations for 1863.....	$551,221,131
Army appropriations for 1864.....	731,000,000
Other " for "	364,431,183
Required in 18 months.....	$1,636,652,314

These estimated expenditures are based on the figures of each department showing the articles it will require at the *prices of last year*. Now, buoyed on the flood of paper, all those prices are rising, and the amount of money required to buy certain articles must be measured by the extent of the rise, and that appears not to have been taken into the account by the committee. There are for the government no fixed prices, except the pay of the army and Congress—all other prices are afloat. The pay of the diplomatic corps has risen 60 per cent in the past year, by reason of the rise in bills. If there are 800,000 troops under pay, as alleged, then the yearly pay is $132,000,000 for privates, but there are 1,200 regiments of 33 officers each, making $60,000,000 for officers pay. If, then, $300,000,000 is deducted from the above amount, there remains $1,346,652,314 to be expended on articles of which the value is daily rising. To illustrate, we have compiled a table of the prices of 55 of the leading articles of commerce, as reported in the New York *Shipping List*, January 1, 1862 and 1863:

PRICES OF FIFTY-FIVE ARTICLES IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	December 31, 1861.		1862.		Rise per cent.
Sterling exchange	110 a	110½	145 a	147	36
Gold	Par.		132 a	133	32½
Copper, American lake.100 lbs.	23 00 a	25 00	32 50 a	33 00	33
Coal.....ton	4 50 a	5 00	8 00 a	8 50	75
Iron, American, pig	21 00 a	23 00	31 00 a	32 00	44
Cordage, Manilla.....100 lbs.	9 00 a	10 75	12 00 a	12 00	25
Lead, Galena	6 50 a	6 75	8 25 a	9 50	30
Nails	3 25 a	3 75	4 75 a	5 00	40
Ashes, pot.....100 lbs.	5 50 a	5 75	8 00 a	8 50	25
Indigo	1 50 a	2 00	1 85 a	2 20	15
Coffee, Brazils.....100 lbs.	20 50 a	21 50	28 00 a	31 00	40
Cotton, mid. fair	29 00 a	29 50	70 00 a	71 00	150
Dry cod	3 87 a	4 25	4 37 a	4 75	20
Flour, Western	5 40 a	5 60	6 60 a	6 95	25
India rubber	50 a	52	87½ a	90	70
Gunny cloth.....100 yards	13 00 a	13 50	14 75 a	15 00	13
Corn, Western.....100 bush.	58 50 a	60 00	81 50 a	83 00	40
Hay.....100 lbs.	80 a	85	95 a	1 00	18
Wheat ..... bush.	1 30 a	1 45	1 50 a	1 65	15
Hemp, American, dressed, cut.	10 50 a	11 25	12 50 a	14 00	22
Barley .....bush.	85 a	1 00	1 30 a	1 55	60
Oats	37 a	39	67 a	69	72
Hides, Rio.....100 lbs.	24 50 a	25 00	27 50 a	28 50	12
Plaster of Paris	1 50 a	1 75	2 65 a	3 00	80
Hops .....100 lbs.	14 00 a	20 00	16 00 a	25 00	26
Clover seed	7 50 a	7 75	10 50 a	11 00	34
Leather, oak, mid.	28 00 a	30 00	32 00 a	35 00	17
Mahogany	35 00 a	45 00	45 00 a	50 00	20
Lime.....bbls.	60 a	65	85 a	90	40
Molasses.....no. gall.	40 a	45	52 a	58	30
Turpentine, spirits	1 05 a	1 07	2 50 a	2 60	150
Rosin	5 62 a	5 75	13 50 a	14 00	140
Oil, whale	48 a	52	83 a	85	68
Oil, coal, ref.	25 a	35	40 a	42	33
Silk, raw.....lbs.	5 25 a	6 00	7 75 a	8 00	50
Pork, mess	13 25 a	13 75	14 25 a	15 25	10
Beef, mess	5 50 a	8 00	7 00 a	9 00	28
Lard.....100 lbs.	7 50 a	8 25	9 50 a	10 25	25
Cassia	35 00 a	36 00	41 00 a	42 00	14
Whisky.....100 galls.	25 00 a	25 50	40 00 a	42 00	70
Gin	33 00 a	34 00	47 00 a	48 00	42
Sugar, Cuba.....100 lbs.	6 00 a	6 75	8 25 a	10 25	33
Tallow, city	8 75 a	9 00	10 75 a	11 00	27
Tin, Banca	30 00 a	31 00	43 50 a	44 00	40
Spelter	5 50 a	5 75	7 50 a	8 00	12
Tobacco, Kentucky	7 50 a	20 00	14 00 a	13 00	60
Whalebone	68 00 a	70 00	150 00 a	160 00	120
Wool, fleece	52 00 a	55 00	63 00 a	66 00	20
" pulled	44 00 a	45 00	64 00 a	67 00	48
Cotton shirting.....100 yards	8 00 a	10 00	28 00 a	30 00	220
" sheetings	10 50 a	14 00	26 00 a	27 00	120
" drills	12 50 a	14 50	28 00 a	29 00	110
Satinets	30 00 a	60 00	50 00 a	90 00	58
Flannels	15 00 a	30 00	40 00 a	45 00	90
Prints	8 00 a	11 00	12 00 a	20 00	80
Cloths	5 00 a	7 00	11 00 a	15 00	116
Duck, ravens	12 00 a	12 50	18 00 a	19 00	50
Total	784 49 a	904 20	1,224 11 a	1,400 79	

The average advance in prices according to these tables is 55.44 per cent; but if we deduct the four articles cotton, turpentine, rosin, and tobacco, which may be more influenced by the war than by paper, the advance is reduced to 51½ per cent average. It will be observed that the advance affects every article, and ranges from 10 to 220 per cent. The gold advance was only 32½ per cent, but in the first two weeks in January it rose to 50 per cent, or nearly the same as in the table. Mr. CHASE was pleased to say there had been no inflation, but the fact is as stated. Now, it is very evident that his estimate of $500,000,000 of expenses for 1862, based on the prices of 1861, was disturbed by the amount of the rise; in other words, he got for his $500,000,000 only as much merchandise as he could have got for $350,000,000 in 1861. Hence the deficits required. The rise is now more rapid than ever, marking the depreciation of paper, and an immense further amount of paper money is yet to come upon the market. The question then arises, what will be the advance in the next eighteen months? We will assume that it will average as much as in the past year. In that case, to procure the commodities, rations, &c., which he estimates at $1,350,000,000, will require $540,000,000 more than the estimate—in other words, $2,200,000,000—which, added to the present debt, will be $3,000,000,000 January, 1864. This is based upon the estimate that but a very small proportion of the whole will be procured in paper money, or that $1,500,000,000 may be raised by loan.

The difficulty of so great a conversion is apparent, and suggests the urgent necessity of confining the government to the one all-important object of maintaining the war. That war should be conducted on the most economical plan, and every expense not bearing directly upon it cut off. Every dollar spent for another purpose, or wasted, weakens the war. To reduce the expenses of the government, a return to specie payments is indispensable. Because it will bring all prices to the lowest points, by which the government will purchase to better advantage, the national exports be greater, and imports less. The profits of industry will then enable the people to bear the necessary taxes to pay at least 80 per cent of the war expenses within the year. The remainder may then be cheaply borrowed without endangering the national faith or its ability to maintain unimpaired its integrity. The capital asked for cannot be borrowed and applied to war purposes. The census for 1860 shows that $900,000,000 of capital is employed in reproductive industry, employing 1,250,000 persons producing wealth. It is notorious that capital in this country is very scarce for such employment. It is always in high demand. There is also a large amount of surplus capital in the country, the accumulation of eighty years untaxed and peaceful industry. This capital is invested in various ways, bank capital, insurance, manufacturing, railroad stocks and bonds, State, city, and country debts, savings banks, ground rents, mortgages due, etc., all of which reach over $2,000,000,000. None of this capital lies idle—it is carefully put out and kept drawing interest. Thus the capital is as follows:

Capital employing industry	$900,000,000
Capital invested in stocks, &c	2,000,000,000
Total	$2,900,000,000

This has been the result of our whole national life of most wonderful industry. The government now comes forward and asks that one-half of the whole of that amount shall be paid over to it in money in eighteen months! No sane man would dream of such an operation. Now, it is evident that no considerable amount of capital can be borrowed without drawing it either from that which employs industry, or that which is invested. If the government offers such rates as to tempt employers to stop work, discharge hands, and sell out to employ the funds in the government stock, industry comes to an end, and the source of national wealth is dried up. If the rates are made so as to tempt investors to prefer the government stocks, then all classes of securities must fall in the proportion in which the operation is pushed. Thus, if the government credit was considered as good as others, and the existing $2,000,000,000 invested be considered as all the capital in the country at *par*, then, if government securities to the amount of $1,500,000,000 more is put in the market, there will be $3,500,000,000 to represent $2,000,000,000 of capital, and the average price would be 60 per cent. But such a conversion could not go on without ruining half the country. It is evident, then, that the maintenance of the war and the support of the government demand an active change of the present system. The patriotism, as well as the means, of the people are adequate to the emergency if properly directed, and the resources of the country properly applied to the one great object of putting down the rebellion.

The following table shows the official figures for the debt January 1st. There was paid on the 1st of January the remainder, $2,883,364 11, of the debt of 1842 in gold. The fate of that loan had been a matter of speculation, as to whether it would be paid in paper or gold. To pay in gold, which was necessary to the public credit, would require $3,600,000. At the last day, however, the banks agreed to lend the gold to the government at 4 per cent, to be returned to them from the first received from customs after the demand notes shall have been absorbed:

DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES JANUARY 1.

	Interest.	1862.	1863.
Loan of 1842	6	$2,883,364 11	Paid.
" of 1847	6	9,415,250 00	$9,415,250 00
" of 1848	6	8,908,241 80	8,908,241 80
" of 1858	6	20,000,000 00	20,000,000 00
" of 1860	5	7,022,000 00	7,022,000 00
" Febuary, 1861	6	18,415,000 00	18,415,000 00
" July, 1861	6	50,000,000 00	50,000,000 00
" 5-20, 1862	6	.....	25,050,350 00
Tax on debt	5	3,461,000 00	3,573,093 00
Oregon debt	6	307,900 00	1,026,600 00
Three-year bonds	7⅓	100,000,000 00	150,000,000 00
Treasury notes, old	6	769,311 94	104,561 64
" December, 1860	10 a 12	9,993,950 00	221,650 00
" temporary	6	3,993,900 00	111,600 00
" 2 years	6	7,767,600 00	2,750,350 00
One-year certificates	6	.....	110,321,241 65
Deposits, ten days	4	.....	38,458,008 50
"	5	.....	41,777,628 16

	Interest.	1862.	1863.
Demand notes July, 1861	.	50,000,000 00	10,000,000 00
" Feb. 1862	.	.....	4,913,315 25
" Mar., 1862	.	.....	123,108,000 00
" July, 1862	.	.....	100,000,000 00
Fractional notes	.	.....	6,344,936 00
Total		$292,937,617 55	$721,668,727 59
Add army arrears			59,117,597 46
Add navy arrears			40,000,000 00
Total, January 1			$820,786,325 05

The debt increased during the year $525,848,707 50, made up as follows:

Due on demand	$303,483,949 71
Due at ten days	80,233,636 66
Due average four months	110,321,241 65
Total due this year	$494,040,828 02

This sum in round numbers—$500,000,000—is not taken into the account of the year's expenses; at the end of the 18 months $50,000,000 of the $7\frac{3}{10}$ bonds falls due. These considerations, which resulted from reports and speeches of the gentlemen who direct the government finances, caused a kind of panic in the market, gold rose rapidly from 30½ to 47½ per cent, and the federal 6 per cent 20-year stocks fell 6 per cent in the same period, although all other stocks representing property or railroad shares, &c., rose rapidly in price. The following table indicates the course of the securities for the opening year:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	6 p. c. certif. 1 year.	Gold.	August demand notes.
January 3,..	96½	98	88½	102½	96½	34½ a 34¾	29
" 10,...	97½	98	90	103	97	37½ a 38	35
" 17,...	91½	91½	88½	101	95	49 a 46½	43
" 24,...	95	96	90	102	96	47 a 48½	44½

With the prices of the 20-year stock at 92 for paper, and gold at 47, the specie price for the federal 6 per cent 20-year stock in gold is 68. A person in England or Canada for $68 may buy $100 of that stock, of which the interest is paid in specie, being at the rate of 9½ per cent per annum, in addition to the rise in price. Yet no buyers are attracted, although a few years since the Federal Treasury offered 22 per cent premium to redeem similar stocks; on the contrary, the disposition abroad seems to be still to send stocks here for sale.

Perhaps a better estimate of the enormous rates that the government is paying for money may be made with specie. Thus, the price of gold is 148, and United States 6 per cent 20-year stock 92. The owner of $1,000 may sell it for $1,480 currency, with this he may buy $1,600 of United States 6 per cent stock. This gives $96 per annum interest in gold, or more than 9½ per cent interest in gold, and at the end of 20

years he gets $1,600 in gold for his $1,000 paid; $600 at the end of 20 years is worth, at 6 per cent, $187; now, consequently, the government actually offers to-day to borrow, payable in gold at 17½ per cent. The banks of the three cities hold $50,000,000 in gold, which will buy $80,000,000 of stock, being $4,800,000 annual interest in gold. We may compare the investment of $50,000,000 in gold last year at 90, with the present:

December, 1861.....	$50,000,000	January, 1863.....	$80,000,000
Twenty-year interest.....	60,000,000	Twenty-year interest.....	96,000,000
Total received in gold..	$110,000,000	Total received in gold..	$176,000,000
" paid in gold.....	45,000,000	" paid in gold.....	50,000,000
Excess receipts in gold...	$65,000,000	Excess receipts in gold...	$126,000,000

Thus, for the use of the $45,000,000 borrowed last year the country pays in 20 years $65,000,000. The lenders may now get more than double, but they do not take the bid. Yet with such terms in the market, Congress affects to restrict 6 per cent loans to par!

The several bills before Congress, having for their object to supply the Treasury, do not widely vary as to results; but on the 17th January one was introduced by Mr. HOOPER, of Massachusetts, which contains a clause of much significance. The bill proposes to borrow $900,000,000 in three modes, at the discretion of the Secretary; 1st. 20-year 6 per cent bonds, profit and interest payable in gold, in denominations not less than $50, and to be sold not less than *par*, and any indebtedness of the United States may be taken in payment. 2d. Six per cent Treasury notes not over three years to run, principle and interest payable in paper, denomination not less than $10, and to be taken for all dues except customs. 3d. Legal tender notes. The Treasury notes and legal tender it is proposed to issue for each other at the public option. Inasmuch as the only 6 per cent stock negotiated by the government since the war began was at 89 for gold, and it has been selling for 92 in paper the proposition to sell any part of $900,000,000 not less than *par*, cannot be considered serious. Treasury notes at 6 per cent, payable in paper, will sell very far below *par*, and as they are redeemable at the will of the holder at par, for notes, the whole may be regarded as only an act to issue $900,000,000 paper money. The important clause is however the 5th. It provides that gold may be received on deposit, and certificates issued therefore like the legal tender notes, but in sums not less than $20. The certificates may be paid out for interest on the public debt to an extent not *more than one-fifth in excess of the specie on hand.* This is a proposition to pay interest in paper money, based on coin, in the proportion of four to one. It is, in fact, a new currency, purporting to be redeemed in the coin which the Treasury owes its creditors. The receipts to be taken for customs instead of coin. It does not propose to allow interest on the coin retained. It is an attempt to make a little specie go a great ways.

It is no doubt the case, if the government paper money was discredited like post stamps or the shinplasters of individuals and corporations, a severe pressure would result for the moment, but specie would flow rapidly in to purchase those securities and property, which is now avoided. The danger of paper money now drives off investors, and causes

a continued outward current of specie, which has been comparatively as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1861.		1862.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold.
January 3.	.....	442,147	.....	681,448	35,954,550	34¼ a 34⅜
" 10.	885,928	1,035,025	1,277,788	726,746	36,770,746	34 a 39
" 17.	.....	547,703	.....	1,380,247	37,581,465	40 a 49
" 24.	627,767	322,918	678,841	780,816	38,549,794	47 a 50⅜
Total....	1,513,690	2,347,793	2,956,628	3,569,257	.....	

The rapid rise in gold, and the probability of its continued rise under the flood of paper, with the active demand for gold for export and for customs, unsettled the exchange market. Few drawers were disposed to name a price for bills, the rates of which were, however, for the steamers, as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 3,	146 a 147¼	5.35 a 5.30	56 a 56½	56 a 56½	49½ a 49¼	98 a 98½
" 10,	149 a 152	5.72½ a 5.67½	56 a 58	57½ a 58½	50½ a 51½	99 a 100
" 17,	160 a 162	5.52½ a 5.45	60½ a 61½	61 a 62½	54 a 55½	108 a 110
" 24,	162½ a 163	5.50 a 5.45	61 a 61½	61½ a 62	54 a 54⅝	107 a 108½

The business of the port for the month of December showed some decline towards the close of the year, as the general effects of interrupted industry are beginning to tell upon the power of consumption. The small prices obtained at the West for goods, added to the higher freights collected in paper money, diminish the power of consumers. The 800,000 men drawn from active industry to serve in the army and navy were for many months without their pay, and, as a consequence, all the expenditures dependent upon that pay were cut off. The amount of arrearages at the close of the year was not far from $100,000,000—a sum which very materially affects the course of business. Spread by several hundred thousand hands through small channels of business, it caused a demand for goods which would be very sensibly felt at the commercial centers. In the second week in January Congress promptly passed a bill authorizing the issue of $100,000,000 more legal tender notes for the express purpose of meeting those arrears. These were rapidly printed in large denominations, which were made available for the desired purpose with the banks. The operation will favorably affect business. This issue makes $400,000,000 of government paper money, and will doubtless be followed by more, since it will suffice for no more than is due, and will not keep up with current expenditures. The operation is, on the part of government, only so many orders for merchandise on the people at large in favor of the troops. Food, clothing, family supplies, etc., are given by the people to the soldiers for this paper money or orders, which the government must subsequently take care of. The want of these issues during the last three or four months, when the arrearage has been accumulating, has affected the trade of the city to some extent.

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Entered for Consumption.	Entered for Warehouse.	Total.
January	$163,658	$2,552,050	$6,663,396	$3,141,725	$12,620,829
February	62,007	3,381,473	7,058,174	3,370,486	13,872,140
March	89,327	3,476,004	10,312,689	4,841,846	18,719,866
April	26,152	2,232,315	7,141,197	3,853,218	13,252,882
May	110,383	1,146,093	8,091,120	4,600,920	12,948,516
June	61,023	1,122,092	7,276,953	2,874,127	12,336,195
July	219,001	1,831,932	13,799,505	4,502,764	20,353,202
August	92,713	962,992	10,289,427	2 939,721	14,304,843
September	121,318	1,784,804	11,890,711	4,351,084	18,147,917
October	256,676	1,004,870	8,462,554	3,689,806	13,413,906
November	109,708	1,526,496	6,565,185	2,108,009	10,309,398
December	78,316	1,950,504	6,831,073	4,212,725	13,072,618
Total, 1862	$1,390,877	$23,991,625	101,483,984	$45,486,431	$174,652,317
" 1861	37,068,413	30,353,918	54,254,231	41,072,228	162,768,790

The quantity of goods imported declined towards the close of the year under the paralyzing influence of the rise in bills and in the price of notes in which duties are paid. The sudden fluctuations in these two items makes the importation of goods a very hazardous operation. The amount of goods—duty paid—and the amount of customs duties have been for three years as follows:

	Entered for consumption.	From warehouse.	Total.	Customs.	Average duty, per cent.
1860	$154,560,498	$31,103,924	$185,664,421	$36,027,481	51 20
1861	54,254,231	39,717,259	93,971,490	21,714,981	36 23
1862	104,483,984	41,563,754	146,047,738	52,254,116	72 36

The average duty charged in the past year has been, it appears, 36 per cent. The actual cost of imports has, however, much changed. If we compare the month of April with December the results are as follows:

APRIL.				DECEMBER.			
Goods, duty paid			$12,496,530	Goods, duty paid			$8,013,981
	Per cent.				Per cent.		
Duty	34	$4,149,952		Duty	36	$2,664,593	
Exchange	11	123,966		Exchange	45	2,804,893	
Gold	1	41,499		Gold	32	852,669	
			$4,316,416				$6,822,155
Cost to import 36 per cent.				Cost to import 80 per cent.			

Thus the average imports of December cost 44 per cent more than in April. These figures indicate the gambling nature of importations under the present arrangements. In the second week in January exchange rose 17, and gold as much—touching 49—making a rise of 20 per cent in the charge for importations. It is not surprising that the arrivals of goods declined under this double process of greater cost and lessened demand by reason of the arrears of the army.

The exports, on the other hand, were apparently maintained as follows:

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
January	$2,658,374	$27,193	$149,493	$12,053,477	$14,948,437
February	3,776,919	49,066	208,757	10,078,101	14,112,843
March	2,471,233	65,388	458,917	8,985,176	11,980,714
April	4,037,675	56,350	607,678	8,002,094	12,703,797
May	5,164,536	76,971	752,797	9,837,693	15,342,097
June	9,867,614	43,358	372,561	10,048,832	20,332,375
July	8,067,337	1,117,193	449,948	14,050,437	23,684,915
August	3,713,532	417,100	256,680	13,046,389	17,833,701
September	3,085,919	572,572	667,987	14,734,993	19,061,471
October	6,707,519	179,205	434,265	19,476,947	26,797,936
November	6,213,215	45,530	284,813	14,060,340	20,603,906
December	3,673,112	108,489	352,902	14,805,112	18,939,615
Total, 1862	$59,437,021	2,853,848	$4,901,383	$149,179,591	$216,371,843
" 1861	4,236,250	2,154,947	5,203,959	131,235,995	142,931,151

The exports were nominally maintained down to the close of the year. The domestic exports were about the same in December as in July; but the rate of exchange was 20 per cent higher in December, representing to that extent a fictitious export value. The bonus conferred upon shippers by the rise of bills was counteracted to some extent by the decline in prices abroad. The average price of wheat in England fell in the last six weeks of the year from 60s. per quarter to 45s. 7d., and on the 1st of January stood 15s. per quarter, or 46 cts. per bushel, lower than at the same date last year, while in New York it is 16 cts. higher in paper, making a difference of 62 cts. per bushel against the shipper.* The exports of specie for the year from the ports of New York and Boston amount to $62,213,122—a net export, in round numbers, of $61,000,000.

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* In reply to a correspondent, we may say that the imperial quarter is eight imperial bushels, or about eight and one-half Winchester or American bushels. Thirty-three American bushels are equal to thirty-two imperial bushels. The English shilling is 24 cts. 2 mills; hence to reduce London rates to New York cash prices, divide the shillings per quarter by 33, and the result is the price per bushel.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

We gave last year, (*Merchants' Magazine*, vol. 46, page 274,) the returns for the years 1858, 1859, 1860, and 1861, and now add the figures for 1862. In the receipts, comparing them with the previous year, it will be seen that flour, meal, wheat, oats, and provisions have largely increased, and there is only a slight falling off in Indian corn; while in the exports the shipments of breadstuffs are not up to last year, although very large:

RECEIPTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR TWO YEARS.

	1861.	1862.
Ashes.....bbls.	$19,983	$19,287
Breadstuffs—Wheat flour.....	4,968,971	5,384,872
Corn meal.....	98,519	251,319
Wheat.....bush.	28,429,135	29,280,629
Rye.....	775,665	957,729
Oats.....	4,852,009	5,435,016
Barley.....	1,854,301	1,685,615
Peas.....	310,398	211,140
Corn.....	20,725,166	18,548,799
Cotton.....bales	243,122	103,585
Naval stores—Crude turp.bbls.	32,254	3,404
Spirits turpentine.....	46,097	8,950
Rosin.....	193,772	38,978
Tar.....	49,506	7,345
Pitch.....	2,367	2,938
Provisions—Pork.....pkgs.	138,770	377,819
Beef.....bbls.	119,028	276,346
Cut meats.....pkgs.	105,835	329,265
Butter.....	539,234	668,842
Cheese.....	988,718	853,657
Lard.....tcs. and bbls.	126,942	397,431
Lard.....kegs	60,305	89,838
Whisky .....bbls.	311,019	364,791

The receipts of tobacco during the year was 63,362 hogsheads.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FOR ELEVEN MONTHS OF THE YEAR.

	1861.	1862.
Ashes—Pots.....bbls.	$13,608	$9,508
Pearls	3,507	1,580
Beeswax.....lbs.	238,553	122,349
Breadstuffs—Wheat flour.bbls.	3,110,646	2,961,518
Rye flour.....	11,807	8,397

	1861.	1862.
Corn meal	108,385	132,606
Wheat.....bush.	28,889,914	25,564,755
Rye	1,000,405	1,104,549
Oats	160,825	210,669
Barley	3,927	42,061
Peas	139,284	113,819
Corn	12,456,265	12,020,848
Candles, mould.....boxes	75,454	96,701
" sperm	17,861	41,894
Coal.....tons	36,536	80,884
Cotton.....bales	152,562	24,400
Hay	15,776	46,674
Hops	28,377	33,409
Naval stores—Crude turp. bbls.	21,571	17
Spirits turpentine	18,825	788
Rosin	208,061	18,200
Tar	26,646	4,601
Pitch	3,080	906
Oils, whale .....galls.	1,196,468	1,554,359
" sperm	1,030,328	756,173
" lard	110,401	710,885
" linseed	35,626	35,640
Provisions—Pork.....bbls.	116,654	171,302
Beef	29,013	32,977
"	33,924	27,765
Cut meats.....lbs.	50,565,732	145,102,758
Butter	23,159,391	30,603,235
Cheese	40,041,225	39,200,439
Lard	47,290,409	126,651,091
Rice.....tcs.	15,867	701
" .....bbls.	15,527	12,143
Tallow.....lbs.	25,820,335	43,866,920
Tobacco, crude.....pkgs.	116,598	113,575
" manufactured.....lbs.	3,152,484	1,598,044
Whalebone	975,075	1,191,907

Included in the exports of crude tobacco are 45,850 hogsheads.

FOREIGN IMPORTS (OTHER THAN DRY GOODS AND SPECIE) AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK, FOR THE YEAR ENDING DEC. 31, 1862.

[The quantity is given in packages when not otherwise specified.]

	Quantity.	Value.
Alabaster ornaments	219	2,869
Baskets	4,581	35,220
Bags	....	530,563
Boxes	3	15,030
Bricks	....	11,272
Buttons	726	162,452
Building stones	....	2,481
Polishing stones	15	842

	Quantity.	Value.
Burr stones	....	17,202
Clay	136	27,700
Cheese	1,766	60,155
Cigars	....	1,012,162
Coals.....tons	366,990	901,311
Corks	249	182,769
Cotton.....bales	70,565	6,121,403
China, glass and earthenware—		
Bottles	6	15,159
China	4,578	210,968
Earthenware	27,357	887,322
Glass	123,128	226,287
Glassware	5,197	137,351
Glass, plate	1,302	176,512
Other glassware	3	1,719
Clocks	65	10,235
Cocoa.....bags	9,229	156,564
Coffee..... "	479,196	8,517,284
Drugs, etc.—Acids	1,531	122,175
Asphaltum	502	8,839
Aloes	233	4,579
Alum	106	2,308
Aluminous cake	116	1,900
Ammonia, carbonate	328	18,164
"	297	12,657
" sal	275	19,929
" sulph	11	1,221
Annatte	778	6,592
Antimony	20	1,335
Arrow root	346	5,712
Argols	1,293	162,037
Arsenic	1,205	7,157
Barilla	....	2,875
Bark, peruvian	5,155	415,234
"	98	2,009
Barytes	753	3,678
Bark, calisaya	189	20,800
Bismuth	8	7,343
Bleaching powder	15,572	189,261
Borax	3,724	108,746
Brimstone	116,474	334,223
Castor oil	649	13,075
Camphor	2,241	112,821
Cantharides	95	26,841
Cardamoms	13	2,525
Carmine	238	12,812
Chalk	3	5,304
Cream tartar	874	248,356
Chicory	52,421	301,813
Cochineal	1,461	175,342
Cubebs	37	13,668
Cudbear	538	38,779

	Quantity.	Value.
Cutch	5,316	25,566
Divi divi	....	6,741
Dyestuffs	2	38,901
Flor sulphur	500	4,396
Gambier	17,880	95,180
Gum arabic	9,256	283,063
Gums, crude	2,315	72,604
Gum copaivi	1,134	44,103
" copal	79	1,589
" shellac	165	9,109
Glue	11	741
Gypsum	200	2,261
Indigo	7,743	2,083,180
Iodine	8	2,576
" pot	271	35,138
Ipecac	51	7,729
Ipecacuanha	224	38,664
Insect powder	13	679
Jalap	240	37,076
Lac dye	504	28,494
Leeches	263	6,889
Licorice root	9,620	28,973
" paste	10,448	277,845
Madder	4,220	768,768
Magnesia	848	20,741
Manna	30	2,715
Nitrate soda	1,000	14,453
Oils, unspec	545	47,631
Oil, cod	1,415	39,796
" essence	2,491	189,188
" linseed	401	35,513
" olive	59,340	235,263
" palm	1,101	71,298
Opium	908	463,097
Paints	....	558,489
Paris white	336	1,450
Potash, bichromate	32	5,718
" chlorate	435	13,912
" hydrodate	475	41,030
Phosphorus	455	24,271
Pruss. potash	55	10,279
Quinine	1,070	177,074
Quicksilver	....	17,050
Reg. antimony	626	40,848
Rhubarb	1,041	43,631
Safflower	10	1,576
Sago flour	485	6,971
Saltpetre	409	336,439
Sarsaparilla	1,770	30,180
Scammony	2	1,344
Senna	59	10,954

	Quantity.	Value.
Shellac	1,174	71,782
Soda, bicarbonate	109,890	323,969
" sal	21,974	158,281
" caustic	39	650
" ash	27,204	664,105
Sponges	1,014	42,247
Sugar of lead	62	2,697
Sulph quinine	10	9,788
Sumac	43,389	139,466
Tonqua beans	79	9,390
Vanilla "	54	21,758
Vermilion	863	56,984
Whiting	150	446
Yellow ocher	1,955	8,405
Drugs, unspecified	....	150,861
Emery	954	10,001
Fancy goods	....	1,057,638
Feathers	....	20,124
Fire crackers	....	74,923
Fish	....	569,815
Flax	896	35,316
Fruits—Bananas	....	40,692
Citron	....	60,268
Currants	....	96,048
Dried fruit	....	14,356
Figs	....	35,837
Lemons	....	288,138
Nuts	....	310,853
Oranges	....	442,223
Pres. Ginger	....	7,701
Pine apples	....	92,987
Plums	....	33,121
Prunes	....	35,625
Raisins	....	442,541
Sauces and preserves	....	271,291
Grapes	....	2,645
Other fruits	....	2,491
Furs, etc.—Felting	486	22,669
Furs	3,982	1,435,518
Hatters' goods	11	1,975
Furniture	115	9,767
Grain	....	78,914
Grindstones	10	18,687
Gunny cloth	10,737	189,457
Gutta percha	1,237	62,262
Grain	632	2,234
Hair	2,990	337,845
" cloth	243	110,851
Hemp	77,646	859,641
Honey	5,464	169,786
Hops	276	3,276

	Quantity.	Value.
India rubber	18,496	992,348
Ivory	334	16,531
Instruments—Chemical	22	11,634
Mathematical	47	9,443
Musical	824	148,566
Nautical	12	3,805
Optical	219	87,386
Surgical	56	16,266
Jewelry and Watches	934	1,152,764
Jute	150	1,522
Leather, hides, etc—Boots & shoes	301	48,906
Bristles	843	188,870
Hides, dressed	3,149	1,189,773
" undressed	....	5,134,345
Horns	....	3,251
Leather	5	2,224
" patent	147	86,691
Liquors, wines, etc.—Ale	4,693	47,153
Brandy	13,605	477,213
Beer	1,125	9,468
Champagne	68,182	411,799
Cordials	2,477	16,611
Gin	33,902	442,971
Porter	2,245	20,036
Rum	939	38,479
Whisky	1,850	122,002
Wines	128,388	860,710
Metals, etc.—Brass goods	149	25,206
Bronzes	51	4,183
Chains and anchors	6,136	316,464
Copper	5	670,478
" ore	....	151,821
Cutlery	5,130	1,203,856
Gas fixtures	435	9,999
Guns	44,033	9,622,206
Hardware	2,788	415,957
Iron, hoop.....tons	1,927	83,487
" pig..... "	17,472	203,375
" railroad.....bars	98,658	500,419
" sheet.....tons	6,440	329,461
" tubes	17,373	32,291
" other.....tons	27,939	1,301,120
Lead, pigs	563,423	3,075,313
" ore	....	48,451
Metal goods	8,525	375,774
Nails	4,429	77,142
Needles	407	169,960
Nickel	78	46,703
Old metal	....	183,094
Plated ware	37	8,512
Platina	48	91,130

	Quantity.	Value.
Percussion caps	331	64,594
Saddlery	154	35,732
Steel	98,992	1,602,391
Spelter ..... lbs.	3,238,237	135,095
Silverware	41	7,300
Tin plates ..... boxes	481,117	2,992,025
" foil	20	753
" slabs ..... lbs.	4,975,090	1,182,626
Wire	5,749	181,839
Zinc ..... lbs.	4,913,917	228,832
Machinery	479	49,393
Marble mardo	161	53,802
Matches	91	1,726
Macaroni	4,695	6,011
Molasses	86,701	1,562,904
Oakum	80	556
Oil paintings	228	55,291
Onions	....	6,205
Ostrich feathers	....	11.807
Paper hangings	109	11,590
Perfumery	801	69,174
Pearl sago	....	555
Plaster	20	23,160
Pipes	....	256,429
Potatoes	....	253,557
Provisions	39	18,738
Rags	16,239	285,926
Rice	4,739	1,184,143
Rope	....	36,620
Rosin	1,161	11,501
Sago	179	2,767
Salt	....	550,161
Seeds, unspecified	....	138,913
Castor seed	14,556	54,660
Linseed	145,783	608,529
Soap	52,378	165,345
Spices	....	783,354
Stationery, etc	7,152	768,445
Sugars ..... hhds., bbls., and tcs.	272,195	12,517,034
" ..... boxes and bags	280,194	2,210,564
Tar	19,875	164,703
Tapioca	2,492	14,895
Trees and plants	25	16,827
Tea	726,527	8,676,245
Twine	1,518	16,936
Toys	4,629	238,927
Tobacco	56,181	1,569,095
Tortoise shell	3	1,584
Tomatoes	413	5,819
Turpentine, spirits	11,070	427,956
Vinegar	70	501

	Quantity.	Value.
Vulture feathers	....	15,203
Waste	19,413	632,639
Whalebone	33	2,751
Wax	30	5,920
Woods	64,692	1,032,171
Wool.....bales	89,930	6,227,970
Other miscellaneous	....	62,610
Grand total	....	$114,709,276

EXPORT OF DOMESTIC COTTONS.

The exports of domestic cottons from New York, for four years, have been as follows:

To—	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
China	$54,686	$43,342	$31,548	$140
Chili	3,041	11,941	4,746	...
Brazil	3,847	7,828	5,037	727
Mexico	2,575	5,014	2,763	2,818
Peru	1,390	4,053	1,574	....
Hayti	885	1,989	1,061	460
New Grenada	1,048	1,406	1,953	671
Africa	379	1,407	876	16
Venezuela	830	1,450	1,369	116
Argentine Republic	903	1,082	256	2
Danish West Indies	653	968	479	251
Dutch West Indies	472	911	602	184
British East Indies	2,173	734	85	...
British West Indies	294	447	492	141
Crisp. Republic	123	545	49	27
British Honduras	261	387	237	32
Australia	388	323	255	..
Liverpool	256	525	37	1
Glasgow	51	180	155	..
Constantinople	..	142	72	..
Cuba	304	181	372	155
Smyrna	137	249	..	..
Marseilles	..	48	93	..
Central America	55	53	23	1
Dutch East Indies	298	..	..	..
Hamburg	..	84	13	..
Sandwich Islands	1,209	..	1,242	..
Canary Islands	..	28	..	13
Porto Rico	..	17	23	17
To British N. A. Colonies	..	10	97	20
Cadiz	..	..	69	..
Queenstown	..	..	25	..
French West Indies	..	..	22	..
Other ports	194	23	12	..
Total	$76,402	$85,397	$55,639	$5,892

1855.....packages	28,822	1857.....packages	27,781
1856	34,038	1858	49,584

ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE FOR 1861 AND 1862.

The following table exhibits the quantity of anthracite coal sent to market from the different regions in Pennsylvania, for the years 1861 and 1862. It will be seen that there is an increase of 314,948 tons in the amount sent to market this year over last year, and yet the price has risen from $4 to $8 per ton. Who can give the reason for this rise? It cannot be said that greenbacks are to blame for more than a small portion of it. Nor shall we again be told that the supply is short, for these figures tell a different story. Does the man live who can give us any *good* reason for the present exorbitant prices?

	1861.	1862.	Increase.	Decrease.
Schuylkill Canal.....tons	1,185,370	980,727	.....	202,843
Reading Railroad	1,612,768	2,305,604	692,830	.....
Pine Grove	211,175	225,000	14,825	.....
L. Schuylkill.....	171,432	250,500	79,068	.....
Total Schuylkill region..	3,178,945	3,761,831	582,886	.....
Lehigh Navigation.....	994,705	396,227	.....	598,578
Lehigh Valley Railroad....	743,701	882,574	138,873	.....
Total Lehigh region.....	1,738,406	1,276,779	.....	461,627
Delaware & Hudson Canal.	726,644	637,066	.....	89,578
Pennsylvania Coal Co.....	629,657	691,091	61,334	.....
By canal	275,000	480,350	205,350	.....
Delaware and Lackawanna.	1,096,202	1,110,744	14,542	.....
Total Wyoming.....	2,727,503	2,829,251	101,748	.....
Shamokin Valley Railroad.	242,000	245,450	3,450	.....
Lykens Valley Railroad....	170,391	179,500	9,109	.....
Treverton Railroad.....	46,500	63,500	17,000	.....
Broad Top Railroad	272,500	334,000	61,500	.....
Blossburg Railroad.....	175,000	160,000	.....	15,000
Barclay Railroad.....	40,606	52,613	12,037	.....
Total.....	946,997	1,035,093	88,096	.....
Total production.....	7,955,206	8,270,154	314,948	.....

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN WOOL AT NEW YORK.

The *Journal of Commerce* gives the following carefully prepared statement of the imports of wool at New York for the last six months of the last year, giving the countries from whence it was imported, the number of bales, weight, and sworn custom-house value; also the total imports for the years 1860, 1861, and 1862.

The trade in both foreign and domestic wool during the year just closed was unusually large and prosperous, the imports showing an increase of about two hundred per cent over either of the two years preceding. The domestic wool growers were slow sellers of the new clip, and thus realized

very full prices; while the speculator or manufacturer who bought at high figures, as compared with last year, found that his investment had been a good one, the advance in foreign wool, on account of the advance in exchange, causing a relative improvement in domestic fleeces.

The enormous increase in the consumption of wool by the army, caused the medium coarse grades of fleeces, suitable for army goods, to advance to prices considerably higher than fine fleeces would command early in the season; but as the army demand became satisfied, the attention of the trade was turned more particularly toward the regular consumptive demand, and an active inquiry sprang up for fine wools, which caused an advance in those grades, while medium and coarse fleeces, from comparative neglect, were left to assume their more natural quotations.

The year 1863 opens with the wool trade of this country in a most prosperous condition, and we may congratulate the New York members of it that theirs is now the largest general market on this continent.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN WOOL AT NEW YORK DURING THE LAST SIX MONTHS OF 1862.

From whence.	No. of bales.	Weight, lbs.	Ent'd value.
England	16,865	6,122,801	$1,215,026
France	13,767	4,658,488	752,350
Argentine Republic	3,812	2,865,182	408,798
Belgium	2,035	1,623,581	271,809
Africa	2,822	1,242,308	216,301
British Possessions in Africa	1,715	792,454	129,722
Russia	1,969	760,400	109,680
Mexico	2,596	645,037	74,559
Spain	1,545	486,796	72,648
Brazil	736	363,496	54,618
Bremen	580	170,638	50,865
Cisplatine Republic	502	359,427	42,835
Gibraltar	907	260,102	41,716
Chili	830	135,108	27,676
Hamburg	202	95,441	20,828
British East Indies	236	86,914	14,076
Dutch West Indies	111	45,707	7,203
Tuscany	127	42,073	6,627
Turkey	104	25,836	5,499
Portugal	145	29,977	5,191
Holland	41	16,155	2,916
Cuba	50	12,750	1,471
Sardinia	33	12,288	1,055
Total	51,730	20,852,960	$3,533,469
Total, first 6 months of 1862	37,153	16,496,136	2,600,823
Total during 1862	88,883	37,349,096	$6,134,292
" 1861	31,016	.....	2,006,136
" 1860	30,985	.....	2,250,928

WOOL MARKET AT BOSTON.

In regard to the wool trade at Boston, the Boston *Shipping List* says that it has been very active, and a very large increase in the consumption of the article has taken place. The receipts of domestic show an increase of 33,703 bales over last year, and have been more than double the receipts of 1860, or any previous year in the history of the trade, an indication that the woolen mills in this vicinity have not been idle. The current rates for fleece wool in January last were from 48 @ 53 cents per pound, and moderate sales were made at these prices in January and February. In March, under the influence of a quiet market, prices gradually declined, and the bulk of the sales in April, May, and June were from 44 @ 50 cents per pound. Before the close of June there was considerable excitement in the new clip throughout the country. Manufacturers and speculators operated quite freely, and a large portion of the clip was bought up, mostly from 45 @ 50 cents per pound, higher prices than had been current for some months previous on the seaboard. Since that time the tendency of the market has been steadily upward, and the current rates the past two months, from 60 @ 70 cents per pound, are the highest of the year. The range of prices in 1861 was from 25 @ 53¼ cents per pound. Fine wools have lately been most sought after, and again command the outside prices, although the demand for army clothing has kept the desirable grades of coarse at very high figures during the year. The stock is estimated 3,000,000 pounds fleece and pulled, against 1,800,000 pounds in 1861, 2,000,000 pounds in 1860, and 2,500,000 pounds in 1859. The receipts have been as follows:

1862 .....bales	99,603	1857 .....bales	28,733
1861	65,900	1856	33,711
1860	48,974	1855	39,620
1859	45,858	1854	19,690
1858	32,306	1853	22,770

The imports of foreign wool show a considerable increase over previous years. There has been a good demand for the article throughout the year, particularly during the past seven months, all desirable grades received selling readily at full prices. The imports of foreign wool have been as follows:

	Bales.	Quintals.		Bales.	Quintals.
1862	39,799	600	1857.....	37,680	13,847
1861	31,578	5,097	1856.....	14,478	17,755
1860.....	30,160	16,471	1855.....	14,999	9,751
1859.....	36,708	33,774	1854.....	24,925	9,821
1858.....	19,882	10,322	1853.....	27,374	16,451

CATTLE MARKET FOR 1862.

STATEMENT OF NEW YORK MARKET.

The transactions in live stock during the last year have included 471,887 animals more than were reported in 1861. In beef cattle the gain has been 8,780 head; in hogs 505,172; but in cows, veals, sheep, and lambs the number is less of each.

The average prices, as represented in the table below, do not vary

largely from those we have reported for several years past, excepting for hogs, which are lower; this difference is owing largely to the enormous increase in receipts. The same political causes which diverted so large a portion of the pork business from the lower Mississippi Valley to this market, are unfortunately still in operation, and so long as a business is thus moving in unnatural channels, it must suffer to a greater or less extent. This prominent feature of the New York stock market is, however, becoming more permanent, and the packing done here, especially of English bacon, is steadily and largely increasing.

In the quality of the cattle marketed here during the last year, we regret that we are not able to record any perceptible improvement; drovers and graziers seem to prefer the "penny wise and pound foolish" policy of sending poor stock to this market, and nothing but the hard knocks of experience will cause a reform.

Table showing the monthly receipts of all kinds of stock during the year 1862, and the total receipts for each year commencing with 1858:

	Beeves.		Cows &		Sheep and	
	New York.	Bergen.	calves.	Veals.	lambs.	Swine.
January.....	14,163	325	376	1,216	33,000	153,278
February.....	14,999	147	442	1,274	28,130	65,402
March.....	15,030	175	557	2,031	20,630	60,067
April.....	19,787	190	621	4,436	27,976	59,845
May.....	17,998	150	436	3,717	25,266	37,088
June.....	16,347	555	414	2,114	33,268	40,204
July.....	21,845	602	553	3,031	55,373	49,773
August.....	17,574	503	313	1,960	44,589	53,968
September.....	25,012	1,500	385	2,602	69,253	87,461
October.....	19,449	1,737	366	2,712	54,250	106,862
November.....	20,805	1,368	367	2,992	40,649	139,493
December.....	24,319	1,429	402	1,969	42,922	252,313
Total, 1862.....	227,328	8,681	5,232	30,054	475,306	1,105,754
" 1861.....	206,227	21,002	5,899	33,171	514,587	599,582
" 1860.....	192,922	32,951	7,276	39,687	516,790	320,329
" 1859.....	168,859	37,334	9,515	37,302	506,961	399,119
" 1858.....	164,636	26,651	10,160	32,645	450,027	551,474

The following table shows the routes by which beef cattle have come to this market during the years 1860 and 1862. To the Erie Railroad statements should be added at least three-fourths of the cattle received at Bergen:

	Erie Railroad.	Harlem Railroad.	Hudson River Railroad.	Camden & Amboy Railroad.	Hudson River boats.	N. Jersey Central Railroad.	N. Y. & N. Haven Railroad.	On foot.
1859.	45,106	12,060	78,140	5,598	17,946	523	72	3,114
1860.	43,882	9,257	82,498	11,668	22,330	13,178	72	1,971
1861.	51,787	32,822	67,190	6,173	16,367	17,071	261	2,446
1862.	55,427	37,048	61,996	1,615	5,665	9,208	174	6,224

Cattle marketed at ALLERTON'S Washington drove yards during the years 1859, 1860, 1861, and 1862, were received from the following States.:

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
New York	44,039	28,296	29,280	35,958
Illinois	34,577	63,420	80,445	101,742
Indiana	8,573	12,182	15,142	16,555
Iowa	4,119	11,892	11,597	3,707
Virginia	2,034	1,253	1,117	117
Connecticut	598	519	805	419
Massachusetts	45	38	67	....
Kansas	30	...	..	....
Wisconsin	30	146	120	....
Ohio	34,943	36,710	36,470	30,635
Kentucky	15,423	13,174	9,058	9,669
Michigan	4,032	3,042	4,650	7,205
Pennsylvania	3,317	2,786	1,109	1,550
Missouri	1,012	7,716	3,735	1,729
New Jersey	596	366	515	411
Texas	79	99	58	....
Maryland	6	....	....	....
Minnesota	45	....	....	....
Canada	3,201	2,008	1,131	523
Cherokee Nation	52	64	100	....

Below we give a comparative statement of the average weekly prices of beef for 1859, 1860, 1861, and 1862—also, statement of yearly average prices of beef and other stock:

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.		1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Jan. 5	8⅝	8	8½	8	July 6	10¼	7½	7½	7¼
" 12	8⅝	8	7⅝	7⅛	" 13	9¼	8¼	7½	7⅝
" 19	8	8	7⅝	7⅜	" 20	8½	9	7¼	7¼
" 26	8⅜	8	7¼	7½	" 27	9	8½	8	7⅜
Feb. 2	9	8	7¼	7¼	Aug. 3	8½	8	7½	7¼
" 9	9	7⅞	7⅞	8	" 10	8	8	7¼	7
" 16	9½	8½	7¼	7⅞	" 17	7⅞	8	7¼	7⅛
" 23	9½	8	7½	8⅛	" 24	8¼	7⅞	7	7⅝
March 2	9¼	8	8⅛	8	" 31	8⅝	8¼	7⅞	7⅝
" 9	9½	7⅞	8¼	7¼	Sept. 7	8½	8	8	7⅝
" 16	9⅝	8	8⅛	7⅝	" 14	7⅞	8¼	7½	7⅝
" 23	9⅜	8½	8⅜	8⅛	" 21	7½	8¼	7½	7⅝
" 30	10½	8¼	7⅞	8	" 28	7½	7⅞	7¼	7¼
April 6	10½	8	7⅞	7⅞	Oct. 5	8½	8	7¼	7¼
" 13	10	8⅛	7⅞	8⅛	" 12	8	8	5⅝	7¼
" 20	10½	8¼	7⅜	7⅝	" 19	8¼	7½	6⅝	7¼
" 27	9¼	8⅜	7⅛	7⅞	" 26	7⅝	7½	7	7½
May 4	10¼	8⅜	8⅛	8⅛	Nov. 2	7½	7⅝	6⅝	7½
" 11	10¼	8	8¼	7⅝	" 9	7½	8½	7¼	7½
" 18	10¼	8	8½	8¼	" 16	7½	8	6⅝	7⅛
" 25	10⅜	8¼	8½	7⅞	" 23	7½	7⅝	7⅛	7⅛
June 1	10⅜	8¼	8¼	8¼	" 30	8¼	7½	7⅛	7
" 8	10½	8¼	8⅛	8½	Dec. 7	7¼	7⅛	7½	7⅛
" 15	10	7⅞	8¼	8	" 14	8½	7⅛	7⅝	7½
" 22	9⅝	8	8½	8⅛	" 21	8	7¾	7½	7⅝
" 29	9⅛	7⅝	8	7¾	" 28	8	8¼	8½	7¼

YEARLY AVERAGE PRICES.

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Beeves.....per pound	9 c.	8 c.	7¾ c.	7¾ c.
Cows and calves .per head	$40 00	$38 50	$34 77	$34 50
Veals.....per pound	5¾ c.	5½ c.	4¾ c.	5½ c.
Sheep and lambs.per head	$4 00	$4 21	$4 54	$4 43
Hogs, live.....per pound	6 c.	6¾ c.	5¾ c.	5 c.

Illinois is the Banner State, as she was in the two previous years. Her facilities for grazing are not surpassed by those of any other State, and she is turning them to good account. Next to Illinois comes the Empire State. The cattle reported from New York are many of them droves which have been bought in the Western States and brought here to graze; so that they are not the product of this State, strictly speaking, as are the cattle hailing from the West, the products of the States from which they are reported here. Iowa has fallen off in her shipments; Ohio is not so largely represented; while Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Kentucky show a slight gain.

It should be remembered that a very considerable portion of the fresh meats consumed in this market, which are brought by the North River barges, and in various ways from New Jersey and Long Island, as dressed beeves, hogs, calves, sheep, &c., are not embraced in the above statement.

STATEMENT OF BRIGHTON MARKET.

	1862.	
	Number.	Sales estimated at
Beef cattle.....	68,2 6	$2,731,440
Stores.....	19,270	443,210
Sheep.....	172,560	553,192
Shoats.....	37,920	155,472
Fat hogs.....	31,182	311,820
Total.....		$4,194,134

	1861.	
	Number.	Sales estimated at
Beef cattle	69,105	
Stores	16,080	
Sheep.....	192,710	$4,226,218
Shoats.....	56,900	
Fat hogs.....	29,330	

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK BANKS.

It will be noticed that the weekly clearings the last two weeks have been larger than at any time during the past year. The great activity in the stock market will of course account for this. Specie has again increased about $3,000,000, and the loans about $6,000,000, while the deposits have reached the enormous amount of $168,269,228, being larger than at any previous date during the year past. The other changes are unimportant.

CITY WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1862, $69,493,577.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 3,.....	$173,810,009	$35,954,550	$9,754,355	$159,168,246	$186,861,762
" 10,.....	175,816,010	36,770,746	9,551,563	162,878,249	249,796,489
" 17,.....	176,606,558	37,581,465	9,241,670	164,666,003	314,471,457
" 24,.....	179,288,266	38,549,794	9,083,419	168,269,228	298,861,366

BOSTON BANK RETURNS.

We continue our Boston bank returns through the month of January. The changes are unimportant. There is an increase of about $1,000,000 in deposits.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $————; *Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,..	$77,339,046	$7,672,028	$8,190,496	$33,372,648	.....	.....
" 12,..	77,427,000	7,751,000	8,373,000	33,063,800	17,006,000	13,520,000
" 19,..	76,624,700	7,710,600	8,199,600	33,352,000	16,547,800	13,727,700
" 26,..	76,354,000	7,710,700	8,008,500	33,847,000	16,811,700	13,958,000

PENNSYLVANIA BANKS.

The following is the official statement of the condition of the banks of Pennsylvania, out of Philadelphia, in November last:

BANKS OUT OF PHILADELPHIA NOVEMBER, 1862—LIABILITIES.

Capital.....	$14,101,030 77
Circulation	22,580,568 98
Deposits.....	11,495,158 85
Dividends unpaid.....	106,430 34
Due other banks	572,714 87
Due State	126,568 94
Contingent fund	604,738 89
Exchange, discount, and interest.....	90,778 14
Profit and loss.....	515,742 02
Due United States	1,225 79
Special fund	14,901 93
Other liabilities.....	4,341 39
Total.....	$50,214,245 71

RESOURCES.

Discounts	$23,646,618 21
Specie	4,025,788 26
Due from other banks	9,465,175 85
Notes and checks of other banks	2,283,458 76
Real estate, &c	618,180 16
Stocks	667,814 72
Protest and expenses	51,609 97
Suspense account	78,445 76
Pennsylvania loans	1,185,342 21
United States loans, &c	6,286.092 71
Judgments	42,856 04
Bonds and mortgages	146,116 70
United States legal tender notes	1,912,077 60
United States 7 3-10 notes	568,769 50
Other assets	76,778 91
Total	$51,020,020 36

There are no important changes in the Philadelphia bank returns the past month, except the increase of about $1,000,000 in the deposits.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970,130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,...	$37,679,675	$4,510,750	$4,504,115	$28,429,189	$6,948,785	$1,994,928
" 12,...	37,533,757	4,544,786	4,450,676	28,018,792	6,890,963	1,848,932
" 19,...	37,416,694	4,549,369	4,382.520	27,877,069	7,050,847	2,275,905
" 26,...	37,479,712	4,572,419	4,284,947	28,773,517	6,755,980	2,638,985

U. S. legal tender and demand notes, January 26, $5,606,617.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

The returns of the Bank of England the past month show a further decrease of bullion of	£192,508
Decrease of preceding 13 weeks	2,779,652
Total decrease since Sept. 10	£2,972,160
During the past year the date at which the Bank held the largest amount of bullion was July 30, 1862— the amount then in Bank being	£18,448,443
January 7, 1863, amount in Bank	14,635,555
Decrease	£3,812,888

The following comparative table will be found of interest, affording, as it does, a view of the Bank returns and the Bank rate of discount during a period of three years corresponding with the date of our last returns, January 7:

At corresponding dates with the week ending January 7, 1863.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Circulation, including bank post bills..	£21,116,633	£21,086,675	£20,929,993
Public deposits.....	3,787,397	4,542,974	8,782,808
Other deposits.....	15,477,425	18,206,488	14,398,308
Government securities.....	10,019,721	12,768,618	11,635,848
Other securities.....	21,499,766	18,156,887	20,887,385
Reserve of notes and coin.....	6,196,586	10,342,402	9,057,145
Coin and bullion	12,175,386	16,046,017	14,635,555
Bank rate of discount.....	7 per cent.	2½ per cent	3 per cent.

Subjoined is our usual table with the returns brought down to January 7th, 1863:

WEEKLY STATEMENT.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 17....	£19,932,360	£8,507,144	£14,038,994	£30,539,363	£15,031,658	3 pr. ct.
" 24....	20,150,398	8,654,499	14,306,497	31,346,731	14,870,795	3 "
" 31.. .	20,516,435	8,338,717	15,469,254	32,488,020	14,956,421	3 "
Jan. 7....	20,927,993	8,782,808	14,393,308	32,620,233	14,635,555	3 "

MASSACHUSETTS BANK RETURNS.

We have received the "Abstracts of the returns from the Banks, and from the Institutions for Savings in Massachusetts," for the year 1862, prepared at the office of the Secretary of State. These returns represent the condition of the 183 banks in the commonwealth on the last Saturday of October, as follows:

DUE FROM THE BANKS.

Capital stock.....	$67,544,200 00
Bills in circulation of denomination of five dollars and upward.....	22,762,113 50
Bills in circulation of denomination less than five dollars	6,195,517 25
Net profits on hand.....	5,796,224 73
Balance due to other banks.....	17,413,849 65
Cash deposited.....	43,725,639 99
Cash deposited bearing interest.....	1,611,849 97
Total amount due from the banks.....	$165,049,395 09

RESOURCES OF THE BANKS.

Gold, silver, and other coined metals in their banking houses.....	$9,595,529 55
Real estate.....	1,696,554 81
Bills of banks in this and of the other N. England States	9,355,035 62
Balances due from other banks.....	7,153,822 99
Balances in other bank or banks to be applied to redemption of bills, and payable on demand.....	9,295,940 25
Amount of all debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, and all stocks, and funded debts of every description, excepting the balances due from other banks	127,952,511 87
Total amount of the resources of the banks.....	$165,049,395 09

Amount of dividends since the last annual returns, with dates:

April, 1862	$2,133,775 00
October, 1862	2,205,254 64
Amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring the last dividend	5,341,021 12
" debts due to the banks, secured by pledge of their stock	848,038 62
" debts due and not paid, and considered doubtful	1,791,876 49
" liabilities of directors	9,895,828 09
" stocks deposited with the Auditor	2,770,150 00

The returns from the savings institutions foot up as follows:

	1862. 93 banks.	1861. 93 banks.
Number of depositors	284,900	225,058
Amount of deposits	$50,403,674 23	$44,785,438 56
Public funds	9,222,568 75	3,111,148 45
Loans on public funds	139,642 83	75,073 80
Bank stock	9,613,244 29	9,176,039 68
Loans on bank stock	560,913 67	816,744 02
Deposits in bank bearing interest	966,219 74	1,228,419 28
Loans on railroad stock	86,798 00	55,825 00
Invested in real estate	326,042 44	286,211 30
Loans on mortgage real estate	18,408,749 50	18,336,337 02
Loans to counties and towns	4,333,832 17	3,659,046 58
Loans on personal security	5,656,923 17	8,916,929 46
Cash on hand	2,094,671 47	484,900 55
Average rate and aggregate amount of ordinary dividends for last year	4 13-100 per cent. 1,977,463 13	4 50-100 per cent. 1,943,532 04
Annual expenses of institutions	135,782 81	120,886 07

FINANCES OF NEW YORK—REPORT OF THE CONTROLLER.

We make the following extracts from the Controller's Report:

A war of unparalleled magnitude, which has called to the field more than two hundred thousand of our citizens, has, necessarily, required heavy expenditures. Aside from these, the financial affairs of the State are in a condition of unusual prosperity. They have been brought up from the deep depression which recently characterized them, to a point which may justly excite some degree of exultation.

The enlargement of the canals has been completed; for the first time, in many years, they fully answer the requirements of the Constitution; all just demands have been promptly paid; the credit of the State was never so high; and, in the face of heavy war expenses, the funded debt has been reduced by the actual payment of $2,100,000.

ACCOUNTS WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Upon the commencement of hostilities, in April, 1861, the Legislature passed an act appropriating $3,000,000, for the purpose of raising and equipping troops to be mustered into the service of the United States.

The amount expended under that appropriation, up to the 31st day of July, 1862, was $2,912,706 25. Of this amount the sum of $79,215 25 was for ordnance, which was retained by the State for its own arsenals and not charged to the United States. For the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the act without delay, a temporary loan was made in anticipation of the tax upon which interest was paid by the State to the extent of $131,188 02. Including this interest, the whole amount chargeable to the United States on 31st day of July, 1862, was $2,948,963 66. From this is to be deducted the sum of $1,113,000, repaid by the United States in Dec., 1861, leaving a balance due to the State of $1,835,963 66.

By the act of Congress of 5th August, 1861, a direct tax of $20,000,000 was laid upon the United States. The proportion of this tax for the State of New York was $2,603,918 67.

At the end of July the account stood as follows:

Amount charged to the United States		$2,948,963 66
Deduct amount returned in December, 1861		1,113,000 00
Balance due to the State		$1,835,963 66
Proportion of direct tax due from the State		$2,603,918 67
Deduct 15 per cent.	$390,587 80	
" above balance	1,835,963 66	
		2,226,551 46
Balance due to the United States		$377,367 21

On the 24th day of June last there was paid to the United States, in cash, the sum of $400,000, for the purpose of discharging the balance due upon the tax. This leaves $22,632 79 in favor of the State, to cover any items which may be rejected upon the final settlement of the accounts.

On the 17th day of April, 1861, an act was passed, being chapter 292 of the laws of 1861, "to provide arms and equipments for the militia of the State and for the public defense." It appropriated the sum of $500,000 for this purpose. Under that act 10,000 Enfield rifles were purchased and placed in the arsenal at Albany, at a cost, including all expenses, of $191,288 46. Upon application from the War Department, these rifles were issued to volunteers from this State, mustered into the service of the United States since July last, and the amount of their cost, as above stated, has been directed to be refunded to the treasury of this State. The amount has not yet been received.

Under the same act, in December, 1861, when there was danger of immediate hostilities with Great Britain, there was purchased a large quantity of timber, at a cost of $79,228 96, for the purpose of placing defensive obstructions in the harbor of New York. After the danger had passed away the timber was directed to be sold, and is being disposed of at prices which it is believed will save the State from any loss on account of it. Several other payments were made for cannon, ammunition, and military stores now in the State arsenals, making the total expenditure under said act, at the close of the fiscaal year, $297,652 85.

BOUNTIES TO VOLUNTEERS.

On the 2d day of July last the President of the United States called for 300,000 volunteers, the quota of the State of New York being about 60,000 men. The Governor immediately issued his proclamation, urging enlistments. But the call had come unexpectedly, after recruiting had been suspended, and at the most difficult period of the year, just at the commencement of the harvest, when labor was scarce and wages were high. It soon became evident that the volunteers could not be obtained as quickly as they were required without offering large bounties. Requests came from all parts of the State for an extra session of the Legislature to provide for the payment of such bounties. But to wait for an extra session would unavoidably cause delay, whilst the President was demanding the utmost possible dispatch in raising and forwarding the new forces. In this emergency the Commercial Bank of Albany offered to pay the bounties, provided the necessary funds should be placed in its possession, and take upon itself the risk of an appropriation being made for the purpose by the Legislature at its regular session.

An arrangement to this effect was at once completed.

The bounties were paid under the careful supervision of the Paymaster-General of the State, and most of them were paid by him in person. The vouchers, which are very voluminous, have been deposited, and being examined in this office. The amount paid out by him up to 27th of December last, was—

To recruits for old regiments	$713,650
To recruits for new regiments.....	2,724,825
Total.....	$3,438,475

There still remains some payments to be made to such volunteers as were entitled to receive the bounty, but were not present when their regiments were paid.

COMPLETION OF THE PUBLIC WORKS.

The Legislature and the tax payers will hear with pleasure the announcement that the public works are finished. The enlargement of the canals was commenced in 1835. The cost of the work was then estimated at $12,000,000, and the time required for it, at twelve years.

The actual cost has been about $40,000,000, and the time consumed has been twenty seven years. On the 1st day of September last, in pursuance of an act of the Legislature, the canals were declared to be finished and the construction account closed. If the public mind was not filled with the distractions of war, this event would be celebrated by a general jubilee.

The grandeur and importance of these works cannot easily be overrated. Their value is attested by the vast amounts of produce and merchandise carried upon them, and the large revenues derived from them. But the cost of their construction has been immense, probably more than double the amount which it would have been if it had been left to individual enterprise. In 1817 it may have been necessary for the State to undertake the work, because at that time private capital and enterprise may not have been equal to it. But they have proved that they are now

equal to any work that is worth the cost of construction. Will it not be wise, therefore, for the State henceforth to cease collecting taxes for such purposes, and leave canal and railroad building to those who can carry it on so much cheaper and better?

CANAL REVENUES.

The following is a statement of the receipts and payments on account of the canal revenue:

Receipts during the fiscal year ending 30th September, 1862:

From tolls collected on all the canals	$4,790,518 39
Rent of surplus waters	6,765 00
Interest on current canal revenue	39,363 49
Miscellaneous receipts	18,343 09
	$4,854,989 67

Payments during the year:

To Canal Commissioners, for repairs	$236,218 16	
To contractors, for repairs	296,168 98	
To superintendents, for repairs	131,910 64	
To collectors, for salaries, clerk hire, pay of inspectors, and expenses of collectors' offices	58,023 35	
To weighmasters	8,430 85	
For salaries chargeable to annual revenues, refunding tolls, printing, and other miscellaneous payments	42,537 34	778,398 22
Surplus revenues		$4,081,591 35

Payment to sinking fund, under § 1, art. 7	$1,700,000 00	
Payment to sinking fund, under § 2, art. 7	350,000 00	
Transferred to the sinking fund, for the redemption of the canal debt, under § 3 art 7	1,146,242 66	
Transferred to the "fund" for the support of government	200,000 00	
The "remainder" under § 3, art. 7	685,348 69	$4,081,591 35

It will be understood that the above distribution of the "surplus moneys" is for the current fiscal year, and not for the year during which they were received.

After providing fully for all the sinking funds required by the Constitution, it will be observed that there is a "remainder," amounting to $685,348 69. Out of this should be paid the amount of interest and contributions to the sinking fund of the loan of $2,500,000, made in 1859, to pay the floating canal debt which had been unlawfully incurred.

THE STATE DEBT.

It is highly creditable to the State and its citizens that they have chosen to pay at once the large expenses which the war has brought upon

them, and to submit to heavy taxation rather than increase the debt. Within the last year it has been actually reduced by the payment of $2,100,000 of principal. The entire debt is now as follows:

Canal debt	$24,011,760 25
General Fund debt	6 517,424 62
Total State debt	$30,517,424 62

The revenues of the canals have during the past year filled all the sinking funds, so that no taxation will be required for that purpose. If those funds are kept full hereafter, as they should be, the entire debt will be extinguished as fast as it becomes due, and will be substantially paid off within twelve years.

STATE OF THE CURRENCY.

At the close of the year 1861, the banks suspended specie payments. They were induced to do this, not by reason of any material loss of specie from their vaults, nor any pressing demand for exportation, but from motives of caution in view of the probable exigencies to arise from a continuance of the war and the financial measures of the Federal Government. One of those measures, then foreshadowed and subsequently adopted, was the issue of treasury notes, not redeemable in coin, and made a legal tender in payment of all demands, except duties on imports and interest on the public debt. It would be out of place to discuss the propriety of that measure in this report. Indeed, the plea of inexorable necessity, upon which alone it is attempted to be justified, admits of no discussion, provided that such necessity really existed. The effect produced upon the financial affairs of the State, by the events referred to, is the only matter which requires to be presented here.

In obedience to an inflexible law, gold and silver disappeared as rapidly as the cheaper currency came into use; and the same alleged necessity which led to the issue of ten and five dollar notes in place of eagles and half eagles, soon led the government to issue ten and five cent substitutes for dimes and half dimes. So long as one cent postage stamps were permitted to circulate as money, even the nickel cents went out of sight because they were of more intrinsic value than the paper stamps. The discontinuance of one cent stamps as currency has brought back the cents; but the three-cent pieces, the dimes, the twenty-five, and fifty cent coins still refuse to appear, although probably none of them have gone from the country. A cheaper currency has taken their place, and they remain in their hiding places.

The tendency of a cheap currency is always towards inflation. Hence, when the government commenced issuing irredeemable notes, the suspended banks, with a very few exceptions, began to compete with it in the same direction, and largely increased their circulation. Cities, villages, and business firms, under the pressure for small change, also commenced the manufacture of money and issued promises to pay. To what extent the currency has been inflated by these means, beyond the legitimate wants of commerce, it is impossible to know. So far as the new paper issues merely take the place of the specie and convertible bank notes, which were previously in circulation, there is no material redun-

dancy; but so far as they go beyond that point there is redundancy, and the extent to which they go beyond it, measures substantially the extent of the inflation.

The Secretary of the Treasury, in his recent annual report, shows a clear comprehension of the rapid downward tendency of this state of things, and proposes to arrest it by stopping the further issue of Treasury notes. Upon the success of this effort depends the financial state of the country. If it fails, the history of "continental money" and of "French *assignats*" reveals the future which lies before us. Far better, more safe, and more economical would be to levy a direct tax sufficient to raise forthwith one-half the annual expenses of the war than to resort to a further issue of irredeemable legal tender paper. There is no tax which is ultimately so heavy as such a currency, which always demands further and still further expansion, and the volume of which swells with every new issue until at last it collapses in utter worthlessness and ruin. Nothing can be more certain than that this will be, as it always has been, the end of all such experiments. The precious metals are the representatives of value, and constitute the basis of a sound circulating medium throughout the whole commercial world. Depart from that standard as far as we may, the laws of trade, more potent than all statutes, will ultimately drive us back to it; and the farther we depart from it the more severe will be the suffering through which we shall be compelled to return.

SPECIE PAYMENTS BY THE STATE.

The great depreciation of the currency, produced by excessive issues of irredeemable paper, and by the spirit of speculation, always engendered thereby, involves the finances of the State in difficulties of a very serious character. Ever since the State first pledged its faith for the payment of money loaned to it upon its stocks, it has held itself bound in honor to pay both principal and interest of its funded debt, in specie, or its equivalent. Through all the commercial revulsions that have occurred, it has adhered firmly to this principle; but never has it been called upon to maintain its honor by such heavy pecuniary sacrifices as at present.

Since the suspension of specie payments by the banks, there has been paid by the State $2,100,000, principal of the canal debt, and $800,000, principal of the general fund debt, besides the quarterly interest on the whole debt, making altogether about $4,600,000, all of which has been paid in coin, or its equivalent.

The Commissioners of the canal fund, and the Controller, especially, have felt keenly the responsibility cast upon them in regard to these payments; but in view of the past history of the State, of its high credit as a specie paying State, both at home and abroad, of the pecuniary advantages which it had received therefrom, of the fact that the Federal Government, and also the States of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, were paying the interest upon their stocks in coin, they could not and did not hesitate to direct the Manhattan Company to make the payments for this State in the same way. Unless we are to be entirely overwhelmed with irredeemable legal tender notes, it is most respectfully suggested that the same considerations should induce the Legislature to provide for a continuance of the policy which has hitherto been pursued. It will doubtless require heavy pecuniary sacrifices, but these will be the

test of the true honor of the State, which, like that of an individual, is of little worth if maintained only when it costs nothing.

It is, however, annoying, not to say degrading, for the State to be compelled to go into the market every quarter and buy coin. The fact that it is to be a purchaser, is used by speculators to influence prices. To avoid this evil, when the banks suspended in 1837, the State, instead of buying specie, paid what was deemed a fair equivalent, the amount of which was fixed by a committee of the leading bankers in New York. The proceedings which took place on that occasion will be found fully stated in the report made by the Commissioners of the Canal Fund to the Legislature, in January, 1838. See Assembly Doc. of 1838, No. 5, vol. 1. The same course might be adopted with advantage by the Legislature now. Indeed, it is difficult to see how any other permanent policy can well be adopted. In no other way can the Legislature be enabled to make definite and certain appropriations for this object.

TAXATION.

The largest portion of the heavy taxation during several years past has been for town, county, and school purposes. The taxes for these purposes have increased enormously. Twenty years ago, in 1842, they amounted, in the aggregate, to only $3,626,793 97. They now amount to $16,000,000, without including incorporated cities and villages.

Considerable discussion has taken place in regard to a general revision of the tax and assessment laws. An act of Congress exempts the stocks of the United States from taxation. The banks in the city of New York have purchased those stocks to about the amount of their capital, some $70,000,000, and thereupon claim that their capital is exempt from taxation. If this claim can be sustained, the whole banking capital of the State, amounting to over $100,000,000, will soon become exempt; and that amount will have to be stricken from the aggregate valuation. The question is now pending in the courts; a majority of the judges in the New York general term of the Supreme Court having decided in favor of the exemption. It is not believed, however, that this decision can be sustained. The States, it would seem, must have the right to tax the capital of the banks chartered by themselves, without regard to the nature of the securities in which such banks may choose to deal.

TAXES FOR THE ENSUING YEAR.

The valuations in the cities of New York and Brooklyn were reduced about $50,000,000, but the amount was more than made up by increased valuations in the interior counties. The aggregate for 1862 is $1,449,303,948, which exceeds the aggregate for the previous year by the sum of $7,536,515.

The State taxes for the year 1862 were as follows:

	Mills.	
For the general fund.....	1	$1,449,303 95
For the United States.....	2	2,898,607 89
For the canals.....	1	1,449,303 95
For the school fund	¾	1,086,977 96
	4¾	$5,884,193 75

The taxes for the ensuing year need not and ought not to be more than one-half of the above amount. The direct tax of the United States having been suspended by act of Congress, will not be levied. Nothing will be required by the canals, except the one-fourth mill tax for interest and sinking fund of the $2,500,000 borrowed to pay the floating canal debt in 1859. This is a part of the canal debt, and should be paid from the surplus revenues of the canals; but the Constitution is imperative in requiring money borrowed in that way to be paid by a direct tax. Consequently, the tax must be levied until the debt shall be paid, however large the surplus revenues may be. But it will be entirely proper to appropriate an equal amount from the surplus to the general fund, and thus reduce the tax required for that fund. If this should be done, only three-fourths of a mill will be required for the general fund. There will, also, be required a one-half mill tax to cover the estimated deficiency at the close of the current fiscal year. The whole amount of taxes required to be levied will then be as follows:

For the general fund	¾ of a mill.	$1,086,977 96
For the school fund.....	¾ "	1,086,977 96
For estimated deficiency.....	½ "	724,651 97
For interest and sinking fund on $2,500,000 of canal debt	¼ "	362,325 98
Total.....	2¼ mills.	$3,260,933 87

With reasonable economy the taxes for the ensuing year need not exceed the above amount, being less than one-half the amount for the preceding year. If any new works are undertaken, or any extraordinary appropriations are made, it will be necessary to increase the taxes sufficiently to cover them.

FINANCES OF WISCONSIN.

The transactions in the aggregate, in all the funds and revenues of the State for the fiscal year ending September 30th, 1862, were as follows:

Receipt on account of all the funds, 1862,	$1,732,474 88	
Disbursements for the same period.....		$1,664,188 67
Balance in the treasury September 30...	243,930 56	
Balance in the treasury September 30...		312,216 77
	$1,976,405 44	$1,976,405 44

The transactions in the war fund during the last fiscal year, have been as follows:

Sale of bonds.....	$472,502 19
United States on account of advances.....	222,115 88
Refunded by individuals.....	2,102 11
	$696,820 13

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF OHIO.

The Commissioners of Ohio state that—

The total funded debt of the State, Nov. 15, 1860, was		$14,250,233 89
The "Union Loans" contracted during 1861, were....		1,212,039 45
		$15,462,273 34
During the year 1861 there was redeemed	$565,000 00	
During the year 1862 there was redeemed	755,610 73	
		$1,320,610 73
Total funded debt, Nov. 15, 1862....		$14,141,662 61

Consisting of the following loans:

FOREIGN.

Loan of 1856, not bearing interest.....	$1,166 33
Loan of 1860, bearing six per cent interest.....	1,608,905 07
Loan of 1865, bearing five per cent interest.....	1,015,000 00
Loan of 1868, bearing six per cent interest.....	379,866 00
Loan of 1870, bearing six per cent interest.....	2,183,531 93
Loan of 1875, bearing six per cent interest.....	1,600,000 00
Loan of 1881, bearing six per cent interest.....	4,095,309 47
Loan of 1886, bearing six per cent interest.....	2,400,000 00
Total foreign debt.....	$13,283,778 80

DOMESTIC.

Not bearing interest.....	$1,765 00	
Not bearing int.—National Road bonds	60 36	
Loan of 1863, six per cent.....	275,385 00	
Loan of 1866, six per cent.....	299,704 32	
Loan of 1868, nine per cent.....	280,969 13	
		$857,883 81
Total debt, November 15, 1862.....		$14,141,662 61

To this sum there should be added the irreducible debt, composed of school or trust funds, held by the State, which is now $2,879,379 20, thus making a grand total of $17,021,041 90. The Commissioners also state that $4,095,309 47 of the loan of 1860 have been converted into the loan of 1881, under the provisions of an act passed March 28, 1862.

STATE DEBT OF ILLINOIS.

We last month gave a statement of the present and past value of property in this State. Below will be found the amount of the State indebtedness taken from the Governor's message:

Since the last regular meeting of the Legislature, in addition to the payment of interest, the following amount of State indebtedness has been liquidated, viz.:

With the State debt fund, principal and interest.....	$38,260 06
With the Illinois Central Railroad fund.....	20,140 93
Interest stock paid under Governor's proclamation, since January 2, 1861.....	12,000 00
Total	$70,400 99

The amount and specifications of the remaining debt on the 1st day of December, 1862, were as follows:

Illinois bank and internal improvement stock, due after 1860		$31,000 00
Illinois internal improvement stock, due after 1870....		42,000 00
Illinois and Michigan Canal stock for N. C. R. R., due after 1860.....		3,400 00
Internal improvement scrip, payable at the pleasure of the State.....		21,293 39
Liquidation bonds, payable after 1865		243,890 21
New internal improvement stock, payable after 1870 ..		1,970,966 84
Interest bonds of July, 1847, payable after 1877.....		1,322,985 33
Interest stock of 1857, payable at the pleasure of the State		737,223 59
Three certificates for arrears of interest.....		1,363 83
Refunded stock (coupon bonds,).....		1,951,000 00
Normal University bonds, due after 1879.....		65,000 00
Thornton loan bonds, due after 1789		171,000 00
Balance canal claims, Thornton loan.....		14,624 61
War bonds due after ($50,000 for revenue purposes)...		2,050,000 00
		$8,625,747 80
Illinois and Michigan Canal bonds, payable in New York.....	$1,856,100 00	
Illinois and Michigan Canal bonds, payable in London	1,777,822 23	
		3,463,922 23
Interest certificates canal stock, unregistered..... ...		19,713 38
Canal scrip		4,039 02
		$12,283,422 43
Macallister and Stebbins' bonds.....		53,958 94
Total debt		$13,337,381 37

THE DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The Treasurer of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania thus states the amount of its debt on the 30th of November last:

The total amount of public debt, including temporary war loan, November 20, 1861, was.....	$40,580,666 06
Amount received of war loan act, May 15, 1861....	387,850 00
	$40,968,516 08
Amount paid during fiscal year.....	520,302 26
Total amount of public debt November 30, 1862..	$40,448,213 82

Toward the liquidation of which the commonwealth has the following securities, the payment of which at maturity may be depended on:

Pennsylvania Railroad Company's bonds.....	$7,000,000
Philadelphia and Erie Railroad Company's bonds ...	3,500,000
Wyoming Canal Company's bonds.....	281,000
Total	$10,781,000

PAYMENT IN SPECIE OF THE NEW YORK STATE DEBT.

STATEMENT OF THE CONTROLLER.

The following letter explains itself. Evidently the Controller thinks the Senate has interfered in a matter about which it knows little:

State of New York, Controller's Office,
Albany, January 17, 1863.

To the President of the Senate:

SIR: I have received from the Senate the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Controller be respectfully requested to inform the Senate, at his earliest convenience, the aggregate sum paid during the last year in premiums on coin, to pay interest or principal of the public debt of this State, and whether in making such payments in coin any distinction was made among the holders of State stock, controller's bonds, or other evidences of State indebtedness; and if such distinction was made, the reason for it, and also the authority of law under which such purchases of coin was made, also in what funds was the interest on the controller's bonds paid, and the $500,000 State stock redeemed the past year known as the Astor stock.

In compliance with the request contained in the foregoing resolution, I have the honor to inform the Senate that no sum whatever has been paid out the Treasury for premiums on coin. The payments made in January and April, 1862, were made by the Manhattan Company from the specie and specie funds deposited with it before the suspension of specie payments by the banks.

For the payment of interest due in June, and for subsequent interest, the deposit banks were requested to contribute in coin a certain percentage of the amounts deposited with them before the suspension, upon the condition that all of them should so contribute. All of them, fifty-four in number, promptly complied with this request, for the June payments, with the exception of the Bank of Havana, in Schuyler County, and the Susquehanna Valley Bank, at Binghampton. These banks having declined, and the premium having risen rapidly, it was found impossible to procure the coin for the subsequent payments without purchasing it. But as the Legislature had made no appropriation for that purpose, no premium could be paid from the State Treasury. The Manhattan Company, however, in order to protect the credit of the State, offered to make the purchase upon its own responsibility, to the extent necessary for the payment of the interest upon the funded debt of the State, and

take upon itself the risk of the requisite appropriation being made by the Legislature. With the concurrence and advice of the Commissioners of the Canal Fund and of the Controller, it has made such purchases. The aggregate sum paid for the premiums upon the coin thus purchased, as appears by the account rendered by the Manhattan Company, was, for canal stocks, $229,433 37; for general fund stocks, $22,881 63.

I am not aware of any express authority of law which either empowers or forbids the Manhattan Company to make such purchases if it chooses to do so.

The current expenses of the State and the controller's revenue bonds issued in anticipation of the tax levied by the act of April 16, 1861, for the purpose of raising troops to be mustered into the service of the United States, were paid in the same description of funds which were received for the taxes and tolls due to the State.

The reason why the Manhattan Company was advised to pay the interest on the funded debt in coin, was because such was the practice of the United States, of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and such had always been the practice of New York, and it was believed that the credit, the interest, and the honor of the State required it. The reason why the current expenses, ordinary indebtedness, and revenue bonds were paid in such funds as were received, was because there were no other funds with which they could be paid.

There was no sum known as the Astor stock redeemed during the past year. During the present month Mr. Astor has transferred to the Commissioners of the Canal Fund $450,221 28, and they have paid him that amount for it by check upon the Manhattan Company. It is presumed that this payment is the one intended to be inquired into by the resolution.

Respectfully yours,

L. Robinson, *Controller.*

COMMERCIAL FAILURES DURING THE YEAR.

We are indebted to Messrs. R. G. Dun & Co., (Commercial Agency,) for the following statement of failures in the United States and Canada during the year just closed:

We present you herewith our annual statistical return of failures for the year just ended. It is based upon the actual records of "The Mercantile Agency," and is not a mere estimate made upon imperfect data.

One of the most striking features in the table is the very small number of failures and the diminished amount of liabilities as compared with preceding years. We account for this chiefly by reason of the abundance of money, which has enabled the merchant to collect in outstanding dues more closely, probably, than was ever done before, certainly more so than has been done for many years, and the scarcity and high price of goods, which have not only greatly enhanced the value of the stocks held on hand, but have also made available old goods hitherto considered dead stock, and placed a new and unexpected value upon them.

Failures by months, as exhibited in the following figures, show that the larger portion occurred during the first quarter of the year, or before the advance in the value of goods to which we have been alluding:

January	374	July	151
February	353	August	118
March	263	September	75
April	769	October	84
May	103	November	57
June	84	December	39

As a contrast to the highly prosperous state of things just referred to, it must be borne in mind that a return of peace, with resumption of specie payment, will bring also a rapid reduction in exchange, a large importation of goods, and a certain decline in prices. Furthermore, with regard to goods, the amount of raw material, owing to the rigid blockade, is very great—perhaps even the imperfect returns we have on this head would justify us in saying that it is greater than was ever before known. The opening of the Southern ports and consequent release of this vast amount of a most important commodity, will have a great influence in disturbing values. These are contingencies which all prudent merchants will keep in view, for just as certainly as money has been made rapidly by the rise in goods, it will as certainly be lost by the fall whenever the reaction comes. The obviously prudent course, during these unsettled times, is to carry light stocks of goods and to owe as little money as possible.

As to the future, we feel unusual delicacy in referring to it. We are fully impressed that in alluding to it we are traveling out of the region of fact into that of conjecture, and that, too, at a time when the signs are most difficult to read. More as suggestions, therefore, than in an oracular sense, we would say that although our country has upon her hands a most gigantic work, the astounding developments hitherto made of her wealth give us confidence in the belief that she will safely ride out the storm. If undue inflation and speculation be avoided, we think that no wide-spread or ruinous financial trouble will be experienced.

FAILURES.

States.	1861. No.	1861. Liabilities.	1862 No.	1862 Liabilities.
New York—				
New York city and Brooklyn	980	$69,067,114	162	$7,491,000
Albany	47	2,348,500	20	300,500
Buffalo	26	300,000	5	55,000
Oswego	13	130,000	4	45,000
Rochester	37	319,000	12	150,000
Syracuse	36	549,000	10	90,000
Troy	33	380,000	8	70,000
Utica	35	359,000	12	50,000
Remainder of State	660	7,700,100	230	2,365,000
Massachusetts—				
Boston	480	18,317,161	120	2,013,000
Remainder of State	363	6,769,000	111	1,042,800
Pennsylvania—				
Philadelphia	389	21,294,363	60	1,310,000
Pittsburg	49	747,397	15	115,000
Remainder of State	327	2,948,500	115	1,250,000

States.	1861. No.	1861. Liabilities.	1862. No.	1862. Liabilities.
Illinois—				
Chicago	91	5,117,170	17	370,000
Remainder of State	350	4,911,300	115	930,000
Ohio—				
Cincinnati	163	6,982,071	10	30,000
Cleveland	22	604,000	5	60,000
Remainder of State	397	5,879,500	105	950,000
Rhode Island—				
Providence	54	1,093,000	5	20,000
Remainder of State	14	168,000	10	50,000
Michigan—				
Detroit	50	1,119,200	10	110,000
Remainder of State	169	1,829,200	52	354,000
Iowa—				
Dubuque	10	370,000	8	70,000
Remainder of State	92	1,205,000	55	395,000
Indiana	253	2,562,000	95	500,500
Wisconsin—				
Milwaukee	17	537,204	5	125,000
Remainder of State	113	2,137,500	45	450,000
New Jersey	146	2,234,300	65	535,000
Connecticut	181	2,594,000	57	850,000
Maine	76	710,000	42	470,000
New Hampshire	90	840,690	20	90,000
Vermont	116	1,488,000	25	230,500
Minnesota, Kansas, & Territories	55	4,913,500	22	120,000
Total Northern States	5,935	$178,632,170	1,652	$23,049,300
Canada West—				
Toronto	23	$323,000	22	$405,000
Remainder of Canada West	144	2,362,200	105	1,250,000
Canada East—				
Montreal	53	1,851,569	30	652,388
Remainder of Canada East	43	544,000	42	540,000
Remainder of British N. American Provinces	47	1,391,000	29	455,000
Total British Provinces	310	$6,471,769	288	$3,292,588
Total Northern States and British Provinces	6,245	$185,103,939	1,880	$26,341,888

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

REGULATIONS BY THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION OF THE DANUBE.

SUPPLEMENTARY REGULATIONS TO THE PROVISIONAL ORDER—ON THE THROWING AWAY BALLAST—OF 20TH APRIL, 1858.

The European Commission of the Danube hearing that frequent infractions are committed against the regulations of the 29th April, 1858, which prohibit the throwing of ballast into the water of the Danube and the roadstead of Soulina, considering the gravity of the damage which this abuse causes to the navigation, and the necessity of applying a remedy, specially by the adoption of a more severe penalty for the violators, issue the following provisional regulations:

Article 1. Vessels are absolutely prohibited from throwing their ballast into the bed of the river, or the roadstead of Soulina; they are also forbidden to discharge it into the sea, in the vicinity of the roadstead on a depth of less than sixty English feet. The discharge on land outside the port of Soulina, shall not be done except at certain places, appointed by the Inspector-general of the navigation, and specified in a published notice; the discharged ballast shall be sent to a distance of twenty English feet from the sloping mark on the normal side of the river.

Art. 2. Any violation of the regulation of the 29th April, 1858, and of the preceding article, shall be punished by a fine of from ten to fifty Dutch ducats. The fine shall be a hundred ducats for a second offence committed during the course of the same voyage.

Art. 3. The captain of the port of Soulina shall decide on the application of the fine, incurred in consequence of the offences committed in the port or roadstead of Soulina, or in the adjacent part of the sea. The application of the fines incurred in consequence of offences committed in the river, between Isaktcha and the upper boundary of the port of Soulina, shall be decided by the Inspector-general of the navigation of the lower Danube. The Inspector-general and the officers placed under his orders, are authorized to require captains to produce the certificate prescribed by article 3 of the 29th April, 1858.

Art. 4. The amount of the fines shall be lodged in the Soulina navigation fund to be applied to the support of the sailors' hospital. In case of appeal against the amount of the sentence of condemnation, the amount of the fine shall be lodged in the navigation fund on deposit; it shall be definitively given over to the funds if the appeal is not prosecuted within the term of fifteen days after the notification of the sentence to the party convicted.

Art. 5. The appeal against the judgments pronounced by the Inspector-general of the navigation, and by the captain of the port of Soulina, shall be brought before the European Commission of the Danube.

Art. 6. All the regulations of the date of the 29th April, 1858, which are not abrogated by the present one shall continue to be in force. The

present supplementary regulation shall be in force from 1st January, 1863.

Galatz, 13th November, 1862.

REGULATIONS RELATIVE TO THE CONTROL OF THE MANAGEMENT OF THE SOULINA NAVIGATION FUND.

The European Commission of the Danube in order to secure by an efficient control, the collection of the navigation dues fixed by the tariff of the 25th July, 1860, in execution of article 16 of the Treaty of Paris of 30th March, 1856, adopt the following regulations:

ARTICLE 1. The captain or agent of every sea-going vessel, of whatever capacity she may be, shall be required, as soon as possible after his entry into the Danube, to present his papers to the accountant of the Soulina navigation fund. The accountant shall enter on a registry intended for the purpose, the name, nationality, and tonnage of the vessel, the nature and quantity of its cargo, or to state whether she has arrived in ballast, and the name of the captain or agent. The vessels shall be entered, year by year, under a single series of numbers.

ART. 2. The accountant shall affix on the log-book of each vessel entering the Danube a stamp bearing the words "*Commission Européenne du Danube, Caisse de navigation de Soulina*," the date of the year, and the number of the order under which the vessel has been entered in the register to which the preceding article refers.

ART. 3. The log-book shall be presented to the accountant on the departure of the vessel; the stamp affixed in execution of article 2, shall be defaced by another impression, and the number of the block receipt delivered to the captain at the time of sailing, if required; for a vessel of at least thirty tons, it shall be inscribed, according to the description of the vessel on the register in conformity with article 1.

ART. 4. Any sea-going vessel which shall be found in the Danube, whose log-book does not bear the stamp which is referred to in article 2, or shall not bear one or more cancelled stamps, shall be liable to a fine of fifty Dutch ducats.

ART. 5. The levying of the fine shall be ordered either by the Inspector-general of the navigation, or the captain of the port of Soulina. These two agents can require, at any moment, the production of the log-book of vessels in the Danube. The amount of the fines shall be paid into the Soulina navigation fund before the departure of the vessel; in case of appeal against the judgment pronounced, the fine shall be paid into the fund on deposit.

ART. 6. The preceding regulations shall be put in force from January 1, 1863. They shall not be applied to men-of-war, nor to trading steamers which make periodical voyages according to a programme published in advance.

Galatz, 17th October, 1862.

(Signed.) ED. ENGELHARDT,
A. DE KREMER,
D'OFFENBERG,
OMER FEVZI,
SAINT PIERRE,
J. STOKES,
STRAMBIO.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

WEST INDIES, CUBA—FIXED AND FLASHING LIGHT ON CAYO BAHIA DE CADIZ.

Treasury Department, Office Lighthouse Board,
Washington, November 22, 1862.

The Commandant of Marine at Havana has given notice, that on and after the 16th day of October, 1862, a light would be exhibited from a lighthouse recently erected on Cayo Bahia de Cadiz, on the north coast of the Island of Cuba.

The light is a fixed white light, varied by a bright flash every minute. It is elevated 175 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather from a distance of 24 miles.

The illuminating apparatus is dioptric or by lenses, of the first order.

The tower is iron, 159 feet high, slightly conical, and painted white. It stands near the northeast end of the Cayo, with the keeper's dwelling and storehouse on either side, in latitude 23° 12′ 24″ N., longitude 80° 29′ 18″ W. of Greenwich.

FIXED LIGHT ON THE REEFS OF CRUZ DEL PADRE.

Also, that on and after the 10th day of October, 1862, a light would be exhibited from a lighthouse recently erected on the Reefs of Cruz del Padre, on the north coast of Cuba.

The light is a fixed white light, placed at an elevation of 49 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather from a distance of 10 miles.

The illuminating apparatus is dioptric or by lenses, of the fourth order.

The tower is 46 feet high, slightly conical, painted white. It stands at the distance of about 6¾ cables N. E. from Cayo Cruz del Padre, near the S. E. extreme of the reefs surrounding that Cayo, in latitude 23° 17′ 07″ N., longitude 80° 54′ 12″ W. of Greenwich, or about 1′ E. of the Admiralty Charts.

FIXED LIGHT AT PUERTO DE CAYO DIANA.

Also, that on and after the 10th day of October, 1862, a fixed white harbor light would be exhibited from a pole on the west part of Cayo Diana, in Cardenas Bay, 5 miles from the village of Cardenas.

The light is elevated 43 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather from a distance of 7 miles. It is in latitude 23° 09′ 56′ N., longitude 81° 07′ W. of Greenwich.

ALTERATION OF LIGHT ON TAPION POINT, ST. LUCIA.

A fixed red light is now exhibited from the lighthouse on Tapion Point, on the south side of entrance to Port Castries, Island of St. Lucia; and the two white lights hitherto shown are discontinued.

All bearings are magnetic. Variation 5° east in 1862.

By order,
W. B. Shubrick, *Chairman.*

MARINE LOSSES FOR 1862.

The following exhibits the number and class of American disasters reported in each month of the year 1862. It is made up from a record kept by J. H. UPTON, Secretary of the American Shipmasters' Association:

SYNOPSIS FOR 1862.

	Steamers.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	No. of vessels.	Estimated loss.
January	4	16	18	20	27	95	$1,825,600
February	2	25	33	18	31	109	1,529,200
March.....	4	49	40	32	57	109	2,340,800
April	3	23	34	14	24	98	1,416,300
May	5	18	9	14	17	63	1,735,700
June.....	2	10	11	6	15	44	960,000
July	2	11	11	14	10	48	647,000
August.....	5	6	8	6	8	33	428,000
September....	2	11	5	13	19	50	616,000
October	5	19	12	12	25	73	1,412,000
November ...	.	18	21	13	26	78	1,716,000
December.....	10	27	17	27	56	137	1,964,000
Total	44	233	219	189	325	1,010	$16,590,600
" 1861.	49	232	182	168	322	953	18,930,650

DIVIDENDS BY COMPANIES TO THEIR STOCKHOLDERS.

We have been favored with the following important decision on the payment of dividends by companies to their stockholders:

Office of Merchants' Insurance Co.,
New York, Dec. 10, 1862.

HON. GEORGE S. BOUTWELL, *Commissioner of Internal Revenue:*

DEAR SIR: According to section 82 of the excise law, can banks, insurance companies, and other corporations pay their dividends in full to stock holders, and in addition thereto pay the United States government the sum of 3 per cent tax, or must the tax be deducted from the payment of dividend to each individual stockholder, and the 3 per cent paid to the government as the tax on such dividend? Your early answer will oblige.

Yours respectfully,
J. L. DOUGLASS, *Secretary.*

Office of Internal Revenue, Dec. 12, 1862.

SIR: Your letter of the 10th inst. is at hand, concerning the payment of dividends in full to stockholders. The company must bear in mind that the amount paid stockholders is 97-100 of the sum upon which the 3 per cent must be levied in order that the government may have its just proportion.

Very respectfully,
GEO. S. BOUTWELL, *Commissioner.*

J. L. DOUGLASS, *Merchants' Insurance Co., New York.*

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE.

CALIFORNIA WINES—THE PRESENT TARIFF.

On the 9th of December last a State wine convention was held at San Francisco. At a preliminary meeting of the wine-growers and others interested in the culture of the vine and the production of wine in the State of California, held in the city and county of San Francisco on the 18th day of November, 1862, a committee was appointed to report to a State convention of wine-growers, to be held on the 9th day of December, 1862, "the practical effect upon the wine-growing interest of this country, of the present tariff upon imported wines; the amount of foreign wines imported, and the amount of wines exported from this port; also, the amount and character of adulterated and spurious wines imported into this State."

This Committee made their report at the convention held as stated above, and we make the following extracts from their report:

The present tariff upon foreign wines imported into the United States is an *ad valorem* duty of fifty per cent upon the value of the wines at the place whence the same are shipped to this country, or upon the home value of the wines. It is a well known fact and generally understood, that the invoices of foreign wines which are sent to our custom-houses, and upon which this *ad valorem* duty of fifty per cent is to be imposed, in very many and perhaps in a majority of instances, are made up, so far as the price or value of the wines is concerned, with special reference to the *ad valorem* duty, and the value affixed to the wines is, therefore, greatly below their *real value*. The government is by this process defrauded out of its legitimate revenue, and the producers of domestic or American wines, deprived of that protection which a well regulated tariff is calculated to give them, and which is one of the primary objects of government in adjusting a system of duties upon imports.

CALIFORNIA A WINE STATE.

The culture of the vine and the production of wines in the United States are shortly to become of great importance, and it should be the care of the National Government, and of the State Government, to foster and encourage this important branch of industry in all proper ways. From the rapidly increasing importance of this interest in California, your committee think they may reasonably say that in a few years, provided suitable encouragement is given, and suitable protection afforded, it will take its place at the very head of the list of exports from our golden State.

In order to encourage this important interest in this State, whilst in its infancy, and whilst it is struggling for existence, the Legislature should extend to it all the aid and encouragement in its power. In the first place, your committee believe that it would be wise policy and good economy that all vinyards and products of vinyards in California should be exempt from all taxation for the period of ten years at least, and that the same wise policy should be adopted by the State in offering bounties or premiums for the production of wines, as that adopted by the Legislature of 1862 in re-

gard to the production of sugar, molasses, flax, hemp, cotton, tobacco, etc. Surely the Legislature cannot be blind to the growing importance of this branch of agriculture.

California has a fresh, virgin soil; a climate as well, if not better adapted to the culture of the vine than France, and her vinyards will no doubt in time produce three or four times as much wine to the acre as the vinyards of France or Germany; that is to say, when we shall have discovered the best localities and introduced the choice varieties of grape for the production of wine. All this will require time and money and patient industry.

Our wine, of course, comes in direct contact and competition with the wines of France, Germany, Spain, Portugal, and other wine-growing countries of Europe. It meets face to face the red and white wines of France; the Hockheimer, the Johannisberger, the Markbrunn, and the Stein wines of Germany; with the Malaga, the Sherry, and the Vino Tinto of Spain; with the Lisbon, the Port, and other wines of Portugal; with the Braunenberg, the Ratchdorf, the St. Gregory, the Tokay, and other wines of Hungary; and the only way in which we can successfully compete with these and other wines at present, is by receiving the fostering care of the State and National governments.

All the wine-growing interest of California asks, is to be protected for a short period of time, until this infant enterprise, this soon to be important branch of industry, can gather strength and power sufficient to enable it to walk alone, and fight its own battles against the combined wine-growing countries of the whole civilized world. The wine-growers do not ask, they do not expect, they do not wish the Legislature of this State to do anything for their interests which shall injuriously affect the revenue of the State, or which shall ultimately take any money from her treasury, but on the other hand, they believe that the State, by lending her aid *now* to relieve, to encourage, and foster this interest, that in a few brief years her revenues will be largely augmented thereby.

There is no doubt in the minds of your committee, that within the boundary limits of the State of California, there are twice the number of acres of land adapted to the culture of the vine, and the production of wines, that there are in all the vinyards of France, which now produce about 1,000,000,000 gallons wine annually, valued at about $100,000,000. But suppose that we have only the same number of acres that France has, the quantity of wine produced to the acre would be at least three times as great as that produced by the French vinyards, thus giving us a product from the same number of acres, of 3,000,000,000 gallons annually, valued at $250,000,000 at least, upon which the State could levy a tax, in addition to the immense value of the vinyards, which would also be taxable, so that instead of depleting her treasury or diminishing her revenues by the temporary assistance required, she would be building up an interest which would largely add to her population, and she would be opening an avenue through which would flow into her treasury a golden stream, adding also to her productions, the great *apostle of health and temperance.*

The Internal Revenue Act, passed by Congress, and approved July 1st, 1862, imposes a tax or specific duty of five cents per gallon upon all domestic or American wines. This is a very onerous tax upon this branch of American industry, and almost entirely deprives the American wine-grower of any benefit from the duty *ad valorem* upon foreign wines. The foreign

wine-grower encounters none of the difficulties which the American, and particularly the California wine-grower, is compelled to meet. Here, labor of every grade is high; transportation of every character, whether by land or water, is high; rents of buildings and of land are high; interest upon money is high; in short, everything—every item which goes to make up the cost of our wines, is at least three times greater than in the wine growing countries of Europe.

Your committee are of opinion that the present tariff upon foreign wines is entirely inadequate to afford suitable protection to the American wine-grower, and to enable him successfully to compete with the cheap wines of Europe, and would recommend that this Convention shall memorialize Congress so to amend the revenue laws as to make the duty upon foreign wines a specific one, of such an amount upon each and every gallon of foreign wine imported into the United States, as shall afford the requisite protection, and at the same time afford reasonable revenue to the government.

FOREIGN WINE IMPORTED.

Through the generous assistance of B. W. MUDGE, Esq., United States appraiser, your committee have been enabled to ascertain the quantity and value of foreign wines imported into this State for the first three-quarters of 1862, and estimating the fourth quarter upon this basis, it will give the quantity for 1862, 810,039 gallons, valued, as per invoices, at $298,200.

NATIVE WINE EXPORTATION.

There has been but little wine exported from this State, and that, principally, by Messrs. KOHLER & FROHLING, for the house of Messrs. PERKINS, STERN & Co., of New York and Boston. The exports are, however, increasing, and when peace shall again smile upon our country, they will be quite large. The quantity exported from the State in 1862, was about 75,000 gallons.

In accordance with this report, a memorial was adopted by the Convention praying Congress to remedy the evils refered to in the report. We trust the matter will receive the attention it deserves.

From a report to this Convention, of the committee appointed to collect statistics in relation to the vinyards of California, we learn that the number of vines in the principal wine producing districts, as far as can be ascertained, are as follows:

City of Los Angeles	1,200,000
Sonoma Valley	1,138,800
Anaheim	450,000
San Gabriel	150,000
Cocomongo	160,000
Green Valley Solano County	135,000
Napa Valley	320,000
Putah Valley	150,000
Cacha Creek Valley	80,000
Santa Clara County	800,000
Sonora and vicinity	150,000
Oroville	75,000

TOBACCO—ITS CULTIVATION.

The Adelaide *Observer*, in speaking of raising tobacco in California, says that in order to grow strong tobacco plants the ground must be well prepared and worked very fine. In preparing the seed bed I have found the best way to be is to light a large fire on the ground; the soil is thus rendered loose and friable, and is easily reduced very fine. If it is not convenient to make a fire, mix the earth with a large dose of wood-ashes and small charred dust. By this means the ground becomes so loose that when the plants are ready for transplanting, a good sprinkling from the garden-pot will make the ground so soft that each plant will bring with it a small ball of earth, which almost insures the plant's growing; and it must be borne in mind that young tobacco plants require very careful handling. It is better to have a large shallow basket or box to carry the plants in when transplanting, as by this means the plants do not lose the ball of earth, or get bruised so much as if taken in the hand.

The seed bed being made fine with the rake, take the seed and mix it well with ten times (by bulk) as much fine earth and ashes. This enables you to sow the seed so thin that in drawing the larger plants you do not disturb the smaller ones.

The ground being prepared, and the seed well mixed as directed, proceed to sow, taking care to scatter the seed as equally as possible. Do not rake in the seed, but give the bed a slight beating with the back of the spade, and see that the earth does not rise with the spade. The time for sowing is in all September [in Australia corresponding to March here]. Let the seed bed be in a sheltered situation. When the plants are about the size cabbage-plants usually are at transplanting, operations may commence, making choice of a cloudy or even a rainy day for the business. The ground for the crop must be well worked and well manured with decayed manure; and it is better to have two shingles, or other pieces of timber about six inches high, to stick on end in the ground, meeting over the plant so as to protect it from being scorched with the noon day sun, or nipped with the morning's frost. A light, sandy soil suits the tobacco well, if well worked and manured.

An old tobacconist of Sacramento informs the *Bee* that all the California tobacco he has seen has been spoiled in curing. It is cured in houses which are so hot that the leaf is burned and destroyed. The entire substance is taken out of it, and nothing but the coarse vegetable matter left, without any or scarcely any of the qualities of the plant. And this, he says, must ever be the result while the leaf is dried as it has been here. He proposes that it be dried under trees, through whose branches the sun does not penetrate; in a close grove, in fact, through which the air can freely circulate, in order that the leaf may not be bleached of all its properties. Tobacco cured in this manner will, he is satisfied, be good.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

DECISIONS BY THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

THE following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors relating to the proper classification, under the tariff acts of March 2, 1861, and August 5, 1861, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production entered at the ports of Boston and New York:

GINGHAMS.

Treasury Department, October 13, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. JORDAN, MARSH & Co., from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 2½ cents per square yard, and in addition thereto, ten per cent ad valorem, under section 14 of the act of March 2, 1861, on two cases of ginghams.

The appellants claim that said goods are known not as "bleached," but as printed goods, and, consequently, (the goods not exceeding in fineness 140 threads to the square inch,) are dutiable at the rate of only two cents per square yard, and 10 per cent ad valorem additional.

Section 14, above referred to, adopts brown unprinted cottons as the standard, and classifies them under four schedules, and lays four rates of duty, according to texture; it then lays "on all goods embraced in the foregoing schedules, if bleached, an additional duty of ½ cent per square yard, and if *printed*, painted, etc., a duty of 10 per cent in addition to the rates of duty provided in the foregoing schedules." Admitting that these goods undergo the bleaching process before they are "printed, painted," etc., the question presented is, are they liable to the ½ cent per square yard on bleached goods and the 10 per cent ad valorem on printed goods, in addition to the unbleached rates; or are they liable only to the 10 per cent in addition to those rates?

In my opinion, the words "foregoing schedules," in both instances, refer back directly to the four schedules classifying cottons according to their texture. The clause laying ½ cent additional duty is not a "schedule." Goods unprinted and unbleached, not exceeding 140 threads to the square inch, are subject to a duty of two cents per square yard; if bleached, to ½ cent additional, viz: to 2½ cents per square yard; but if they are "printed goods," technically so called, they pay two cents per square yard, and 10 per cent ad valorem additional.

The mere fact that the cotton may have been bleached in the process of manufacturing the print goods does not change their distinctive commercial appellation. Ginghams are *printed* goods, and not *bleached* goods, in the language of trade; consequently, the ½ cent per square yard for bleached goods does not accrue.

In this view of the case, your decision assessing duty at the rate of "2½ cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto, 10 per cent ad valorem," on the goods in question, is hereby overruled.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, etc., Boston.*

SALT.

Treasury Department, December 17, 1862.

SIR: The appeal of EDWARD S. NICKERSON from your decision levying a duty of 18 cents per 100 pounds on certain salt imported by him from Liverpool has been duly considered.

The importer claims "that it should pay only the ad valorem duty assessed upon non-enumerated articles."

The Tariff act of August 5, 1861, imposes a duty "on salt in sacks, 18 cents per 100 pounds, and in bulk, 12 cents per 100 pounds."

"Salt in barrels" is neither "salt in sacks" nor "salt in bulk," but must be considered as falling within the provision of section 20 of the act approved August 30, 1842.

"That there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on each and every non-enumerated article which bears a similitude, either in material, quality, texture, or the use to which it may be applied, to any enumerated article chargeable with duty, the same rate of duty which is levied and charged on the enumerated article which it most resembles in any of the particulars before mentioned; and if any non-enumerated article equally resembles two or more enumerated articles, on which different rates of duty are chargeable, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on such non-enumerated article, the same rate of duty as is chargeable on the article it resembles paying the highest duty; and on all articles manufactured from two or more materials, the duty shall be assessed at the highest rate at which any of its component parts may be chargeable."

It is in evidence that the salt in question most clearly resembles, in every particular, the salt usually imported in sacks.

Your decision is therefore affirmed.

Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, etc., Boston.*

SILK AND COTTON PLUSH.

Treasury Department, December 17, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of Messrs. HERSCHFELD & STERN from your decision subjecting certain goods imported by them to duty, at the rate of 40 per cent ad valorem, under the provision of the 2d section of the act of August, 1861, providing for "all other manufactures of silk or of which silk shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for."

The appellants claim to enter said goods as "silk and cotton velvets," and as subject to 30 per cent ad valorem under the provision in the same section providing for "all silk velvets, or velvets of which silk is the com-

ponent material of chief value, valued at $3 per square yard, or under, 30 per cent ad valorem."

The appraisers report the article in question to be silk and cotton "plush," and so known in commerce. Silk plush not being specially provided for by name in the tariffs of March 2 and August 5, 1861, falls within the provision under which you placed it on the entry. Your decision is therefore affirmed.

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, *Collector, New York city.*

MANUFACTURES OF CARBONATES OF LIME AND LEAD, (BILLIARD CHALK.)

Treasury Department, December 20, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of F. GROTE, Esq., from your decision subjecting to duty, at the rate of 30 per cent ad valorem, under the classification of section 22 of the Tariff act of March 2, 1861, of "manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for," an article styled by the importer "French chalk."

The importer claims entry of said article free of duty, under the provisions of section 23 of said act, for "chalk, French chalk, and red chalk."

The article in question has been submitted to the experts of the customs, and they report that it is not "French chalk," which is a magnesian mineral and species of the "steatite, or soap-stone;" but it is a manufacture of carbonate of lime and carbonate of lead, fitted for use by being partly cased with paper.

I do not concur with you that the article in question should be classified "as a manufacture of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for;" but I am clearly of the opinion that it falls within the provision of the 24th section of the act of 1861, for "all articles manufactured in whole or in part, not enumerated or provided for," and liable to duty at the rate of 20 per cent ad valorem.

Very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector New York city.*

SILK AND MOHAIR MIXTURES.

Treasury Department, December 20, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of Messrs. C. F. HOVEY & Co., of June 9, 1862, from your decision assessing a duty at the rate of 40 per cent, under section 2, act of August 5, 1861, on certain "silk and mohair mixtures imported by them.

The appellants claim "that mohair is the component material of chief value," and that they are therefore chargeable with a duty of 30 per cent only.

Samples of the goods in question have been submitted to the appraisers at New York and Philadelphia, and their opinion agrees with that of the appraisers at your port, viz: "That silk is the component material of chief value. Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, *Collector, etc., Boston.*

PATTERN CARDS.

Treasury Department, December 20, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. JORDAN, MARSH & Co., from your decision "assessing duties on pattern cards."

The appellants claim that they are not subject to any duty, "on the ground that the goods of which the card was composed had already been charged for in the piece it represented."

It is stated by the appraisers that the book, and other expensive embellishments, generally constitute the chief value of "pattern cards."

The goods of which a card is composed may be charged for in the piece it represents, at the same time the charge upon the invoice may be made up wholly of the book card, or other expenses attending it.

In my opinion, the charge upon the invoice is indubitable evidence of the commercial value of the pattern cards or samples, and therefore subject to the payment of duty.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, Boston.*

PRINTED PICTURE CARDS.

Treasury Department, December 26, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of N. BROUGHTON, agent, from your decision subjecting to duty, at the rate of 15 per cent., certain articles styled by the appraisers "unbound books." The appellant claims that they are entitled to entry under the provision for "engravings or plates, bound or unbound," in the act of March 2, 1861.

The articles in question, as appears from your report, being identical with the article styled "printed picture cards," which have been decided, under date of May 17, 1860, to be properly classed as "engravings or plates, bound or unbound," they are liable under the act of March 2, 1861, to a duty of 10 per cent., as claimed by the appellant.

Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, *Collector, Boston.*

"HESSIANS" AND WHEAT BAGS.

Treasury Department, December 27, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. DUPUY, FOULKES & Co., from your decision assessing the rate of duty at 25 per cent., under the 4th division of section 14 of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, on certain "hessians" and "wheat bags" imported by them from Liverpool.

The applicants claim "that said 'hessians' (a manufacture of jute and hemp, and valued at less than 10 cents per square yard) should pay but one cent and a half per pound, and not 25 per cent ad valorem; also, that said wool and wheat bags, composed of the same materials, and made

by hand or machinery, should pay a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, and not 25 per cent. as assessed."

The claim of the appellants could only be tenable on the ground of the article being "suitable for the uses to which cotton bagging is applied," if "not otherwise provided for;" but *it is* otherwise provided for, and is not "suitable" for the ordinary purposes of cotton bagging, although it might possibly be used as a substitue.

Your decision assessing a duty of 25 per cent is affirmed.

Enclosed is a printed decision in regard to "bags," made on the 2d of July last, on the appeal of Messrs. Thayer and Warren, which applies in the present case, and endorses the classification to which you have assigned the bags imported by Messrs. Dupuy, Foulkes & Co.

Your decision assessing a duty of 25 per cent on the bags is hereby affirmed.

Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

IRA P. RANKIN, Esq., *Collector, San Francisco.*

SINGLE AND TRAM SILK.

Treasury Department December 27, 1862.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of Charles Stoddard and J. S. Lovering from your decision assessing a duty of 40 per cent ad valorem on a certain article styled by them "single and tram silk."

The importers claim that the article is liable only to 20 per cent. duty as a non-enumerated article, or to 25 per cent as "not more advanced in the manufacture than single tram and thrown or organzine."

Section 2 of the tariff of August 5, 1861, levies a duty of 25 per cent "on silk *in the gum*, not more advanced in the manufacture than single tram and thrown or organzine."

The same section imposes a duty of 40 per cent ad valorem on "all other manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for," &c., &c., &c.

The article in question having been purified from the gum and dyed, and can be used, it is believed, without further manufacture, for weaving and other purposes, it cannot therefore fall within the provision for "silk in the gum," &c.; but it is to be embraced in the classification of "all other manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for," &c., and, as such, liable to a duty of 40 per cent.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

Very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, New York.*

PIPE CLAY.

Treasury Department December 31, 1862.

SIR: Your report is received relative to the appeal of Plate & Schottler from your decision assessing a duty of 35 cents per 100 pounds on a certain importation of "Pipe Clay," which arrived at your port from Bremen about the 5th of May last.

Messrs. Plate & Schottler claim "that the charge should be 10 per cent on the value of the clay, as unwrought clay; for notwithstanding that this clay is invoiced as 'Pipe Clay,' it is not imported into the United States, and, to our knowledge, has never been used for the purpose of making pipes, but is onlo used for the purpose of making pots in the manufacture of glass," &c., &c.

By section 9 of the Act of March 2, 1861, "Pipe Clay" is subject to a duty of 35 cents per 100 pounds; and, by section 22 of the same act, "unwrought clay, three dollars per ton."

The provision, however, as to *unwrought* clay, was stricken out by the 6th section of the act of August 5, 1861. No such action having been taken as to Pipe Clay, it is to be regarded as an article "enumerated and provided for," and is wholly unaffected by the 24th section of the same act, which provides for all raw or unmanufactured articles *not* (therein) mentioned or provided for.

The facts that the article in question was invoiced "Pipe Clay," and was so considered by the appraisers, whose judgment is endorsed by persons engaged in the trade, clearly support your decision. But admitting the article to be "German Clay," it is non-enumerated, and would, by force of the 20th section of the act of 1842, be subject to the same rate of duty as Pipe Clay, from its similarity in quality, texture, and the use to which it may be applied. Your decision is hereby affirmed.

Respectfully,

S. P. Chase, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

H. W. Hoffman, *Collector, Baltimore.*

BRILLIANTS.

Treasury Department Dec. 31, 1862.

Sir: I have had under consideration the appeal of Daniel Douglas & Co., of June 30, from your decision laying a duty of 2½ cents per square yard on certain "Brilliants," imported by them.

The appellants claim "that the said goods should be entered at 30 per cent, as cotton goods embroidered in the loom, not otherwise provided for. The correct count cannot be obtained."

The samples submitted by the appellants have been examined by the experts at Boston and elsewhere, and the *threads have been counted* with sufficient accuracy to determine correctly the rate of duty to be assessed, and are found to be, in the sample sent, as follows, to wit: 172, 184, and 188 to the square inch.

The allegation upon the part of the appellants as to the goods being embroidered in the loom is erroneous. Embroidery must be done with a needle. It may be done either by hand or machine. That which has the appearance of a wrought figure in the "Brilliants" is produced by *weaving.*

Having established with accuracy the number of threads to the square inch in the goods in question, it will be found, in referring to subdivision 1 of section 14 of the act of March, 1861, that a duty is levied "On goods of like description exceeding 140 threads, and not exceeding two hundred (200) threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, three cents per square yard."

* * * "On all goods embraced in the foregoing schedules, *if bleached*, there shall be levied, collected, and paid an additional duty of one-half of one cent per square yard."

In view of all the facts, it is apparent that the goods are subject to a duty at the rate of 3½ cents per square yard, and you will please so adjust the entry. Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, *Collector New York City.*

TARLATANE MUSLINS.

Treasury Department, December 31, 1862.

Sir: I have considered your report on the appeal of Charles Stoddard and S. S. Lovering from your decision subjecting to a duty of 2½ cents per yard certain "Tarlatane Muslins," imported by them in the "Asia;" entered July 25, 1862.

The appellants claim entry of the goods at the rate of 30 per cent *ad valorem*, "as they weigh less than five ounces to the square yard, and count less than 100 threads to the square inch, as not being otherwise provided for in the tariff of 1861."

Article 1, section 14, tariff act of March 2, 1861, reads as follows: "On all manufactures of cotton not bleached, colored, stained, painted, or printed, and not exceeding 100 threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, *and exceeding in weight five ounces per square yard*, one cent per square yard; on finer or lighter goods of like description, not exceeding 140 threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, two cents per square yard; * * * * * * * * if bleached, there shall be levied, collected, and paid an additional duty of one cent per square yard."

Goods which count more than 100 threads to the square inch, or are lighter in weight than five ounces to the square yard, must pay the specific rates provided for in section 14 of the act of March 2, 1861. The goods in question are lighter than five ounces per square yard, and *do not exceed* 140 threads to the square inch. They are, moreover, bleached goods, and are clearly liable to a duty of 2½ cents per square yard.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, *Collector, Boston.*

REVENUE STAMPS.

The following are the regulations in regard to the revenue stamps:

Office of Internal Revenue, January 12, 1863.

Revenue stamps may be ordered from this office in quantities to suit purchasers. Orders should cover remittances of treasury notes, or an original certificate of a United States treasurer or designated despositary of a deposit made for the purchase of stamps.

The following commission, payable in stamps, will be allowed:

One purchase, of	$50	or more,	2	per centum.
"	100	"	3	"
"	500	"	4	"
"	1,000	"	5	"

As each stamp expresses upon its face its kind, as well as its denomination, it is desirable that every order shall refer to kinds as well as denominations. By the third section of the act passed December 25th, 1862, every instrument is valid, provided a legal stamp or stamps, denoting a duty of the amount required, shall have been duly affixed and used thereon. Proprietary stamps, however, cannot be used on any instruments specified in schedule B.

Stamps of every kind and denomination can be furnished in sufficient quantities for use in the District of Columbia and the States west of the Rocky Mountains.

Collectors are hereby required and directed to commence proceedings under the law against all persons within the said District and States who shall willfully neglect to use stamps as required.

Special attention is called to the 95th section of the excise law:

"*Be it further enacted*, that if any person or persons shall make, sign, or issue, or cause to be made, signed, or issued, any instrument, document, or paper of any kind or description whatsoever, without the same being duly stamped, for denoting the duty hereby imposed thereon, or without having thereon an adhesive stamp to denote said duty, such person or persons shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars, and such instrument, document, or paper aforesaid shall be deemed invalid and of no effect."

Every correspondent is requested to give the State, as well as town and county, of his residence.

If not otherwise ordered, stamps will be transmitted by mail.

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL, *Commissioner.*

BROKERS' CONTRACTS WITH BUYER AND SELLER EACH TO BE STAMPED.

New York, December 23d, 1862.

Governor BOUTWELL, *Washington, D. C.*

DEAR SIR: It has been our custom several years, as brokers, in making a sale, to hand a contract to the seller and a counterpart or duplicate to the buyer.

If now we attach a stamp to the seller's contract, does the law require us to attach another to the counterpart or copy, when but one transaction has been made. Yours truly.

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, January 19th, 1863.

Gentlemen: I have received your letter of the 23d of December, and noted queries.

In reply thereto I have to state that, in my opinion, both the "contract" rendered to the seller and the "duplicate" or counterpart thereof issued to the buyer, comes under the meaning of the Excise Law pertaining to "Contract or Brokers' note, &c.." and are therefore subject to the same stamp duty. Vide p. 90, schedule B. Excise Law.

I am, gentlemen, your obedient servant,

(Signed) GEO. S. BOUTWELL, *Commissioner.*

MESSRS. CASWELL & PERKINS, *New York.*

FOREIGNERS AND THE RIGHTS OF PROPERTY IN TURKEY.

The *Levant Herald*, Constantinople, publishes the following as the reply of A'ALI PASHA to the recent note of the foreign representatives on the subject of the rights of foreigners to own real property in the Empire:

Sublime Porte, October 3, 1862.

The undersigned, Minister for Foreign Affairs to His Majesty the Sultan, has had the honor to receive and to submit to his august master, the collective note which their Excellencies the representatives of the Great Powers have addressed him in reference to the question of foreign subjects holding real property in the Ottoman Empire. The undersigned, by order of his Imperial Majesty, the Sultan, hereby declares to their Excellencies, that the Imperial Government does not hesitate to recognize its proclamation some time ago on the subject, and will also add, that even issued without the existence of such a circumstance, he would consider himself happy to be able to solve a question which appears to be destined to produce great benefit for Turkey, as well as to increase its relations with Europe. But the representatives are not ignorant of the motives which have, up to the present, delayed this result. They are also aware, that the Sublime Porte has always affirmed that it will only grant to foreign subjects the right of possessing real property, under certain conditions.

The government of the Sultan desires to act towards other nations according to the principles of the most civilized people. In return, it considers it its right, and as due to its dignity and preservation, to invoke these same principles on its own behalf. It is well known in what a situation Turkey was, when its relations with Europe commenced. A few foreign merchants, completely separated from the rest of the population, resided in the seaports of the Levant. They had hardly anything to do with the natives, and were entirely devoted to wholesale trade. The Ottoman Government granted them privileges which the state of society in which they lived, and the customs and habits of that time had rendered necessary; but, what existed then has given place to a state of things completely different. Europe has changed, and Turkey is no more what she was. The relations between her and Europe are no longer the same. Everything then is changed, except those antiquated Capitulations which are often put forward in order to justify pretensions incompatible with the present system, and of such a nature as to render impossible the regular course of the government.

Foreign subjects are in virtue of the said Capitulations, only subject to their own authorities. It follows then, that in the provinces of the Empire there are as many police administrations, as many tribunals governed by different laws, as there are Consulates. Consequently, in any police matter, as well as in everything relating to judicial, financial, and other administrations, the hand of the government is paralysed, in the name of this irregularity. The great inconvenience arising from such an extraordinary state of things, the insurmountable obstacles opposed to the accomplishment of the wishes of the Sultan to have order and regularity in all branches of the administration, are too evident to require enumeration here, and the extent of which cannot be more fully appreciated by any one than by those on whom the responsibility of the government of the Empire rest. The undersigned is persuaded that if the representatives who signed the collective note would take into consideration the preceding observations, they will admit, that, as long as such a state of things exists, it must be impossible

for the Sublime Porte to adopt the course on which they advise it to enter. In fact, how can it grant the right of establishing themselves as proprietors, to populations who do not recognise its authority, or its laws, and who do not submit to the obligations to which the subjects of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan's are themselves subordinated, but to their own foreign tribunals? Everywhere else, where strangers enjoy the privilege of possessing property, they are subjected to the police, to the laws, and tribunals of the nation amongst which they reside; they pay the same taxes as the people of that nation, and they do not expect to be treated more favorably than its own subjects.

The necessity and legitimacy of modifying the Capitulations has been solemnly recognised by the Great Powers who signed the treaty of the 30th March, 1856, and has been solemnly expressed in one of the protocols of the Congress of Paris. In consequence, the undersigned feels himself justified in repeating that the government remains faithful to the promise made at the conclusion of that treaty, to deal with this question as soon as the legislation which governs foreign subjects in Turkey shall have undergone such changes as are required by present circumstances. According to the opinion of the Sublime Porte, the following three points must form the basis of the revision for that end:

1st. The integral payment, by strangers resident in Turkey, of all taxes and imposts to which Ottoman subjects are subjected.

2d. What authority should the Sublime Porte exercise over them?

3d. Are there any advantages that could be granted them in return for the obligations they will have to accept?

The undersigned cannot omit to say at the same time, that the government will neglect nothing in order that the laws to which strangers will be subjected, shall offer all the most desirable guarantees. It is equally to be observed that the obtainment of all the immunities (to be) accorded to foreign subjects, and which would not be in direct opposition to their new position, would not be an affair of a stroke of the pen nor of immediate accomplishment—since it would be out of the question to grant them all the privileges enjoyed by native subjects of the Porte. The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to repeat to his Excellency the assurance of his high consideration.

(Signed.) A'ALI.

THE FRENCH TREATY WITH MADAGASCAR.

The text of the treaty recently concluded between France and Madagascar has just been published in the French journals. It is a treaty of commerce, and the most noteworthy point in connection with it is that Radama II. is recognized by the Emperor Napoleon as the sole and independent Sovereign of the island. It binds the contracting parties to be perpetually at peace with each other, as well as their successors. There is not a word contained in it about the alleged cession to France of San Diego's Bay, as was lately reported by the French journals. No exclusive right is secured to the French, as all the privilleges they have obtained are assured to any other nation that chooses to demand them. It stipulates that either of the contracting parties is entitled to send a consul or diplomatic agent to the other; and that every Frenchman who chooses to do so shall be at liberty to settle in Madagascar, explore the island, and propagate his religion there.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

WHAT A POND FRESHET IS.

By far the most exciting operation of our oil business is the pond freshet. It will richly repay a journey of many hundred miles to see it. Imagine some two hundred boats, of all sizes, loaded with oil, coming down on a rushing flood, in a narrow creek, twelve rods wide, where it requires all the skill and strength of some five hundred stalwart boatmen to avoid colliding with other boats or rocks and obstructions, and you can form some idea of it. But our purpose is to describe what a pond freshet is, and how it is caused. The bulk of oil comes from wells located from four to six miles above this point. To get this oil to Oil City, from whence it is shipped to all points, we have to haul it in wagons, or float it down Oil Creek in boats.

A great portion of the business season, the roads along the creek are impassable. Besides this, teaming is an expensive and slow mode of transportation. It takes days, and frequently weeks, to transport a few thousand barrels a few miles, for the reason that when shippers are in the greatest haste, teams are scarce, and prices rule accordingly. Upon the freshet the shipper can run his cargo of oil to this port in a few hours. It being the cheapest and most expeditious mode of getting the oil out from the wells, it is of course preferred by the shippers. With this explanation we will endeavor to give the reader an idea of the mode in which the freshet is formed and finally let loose. We subjoin the following description of it from the pen of our talented friend, A. S. Dobbs, Esq., the clever Superintendent of the Pond Freshet upon Oil Creek. He says:

"A Pond Freshet is a temporary rise of water in the creek, for the purpose of running out logs, rafts, boats, &c. The water rises high enough to run out boats, containing sometimes five hundred, and, in some few cases, seven hundred barrels of oil. There are usually from one hundred and fifty to two hundred and fifty boats on each freshet. It lasts from one to two hours, and is caused by letting the water out from seven to seventeen dams on the principal branches of the creek, so that the water will all meet together, making quite a flood, upon which from seven thousand to thirty thousand barrels of oil are run in boats to the river.

"The dams are built with a solid abutment at each end, and often one in the middle. Between these abutments there are timbers made very solid in the bottom of the creek, in which mortices are made every three or four feet. On the top of the abutments, which are usually from ten to twelve feet high, other timbers are fastened spanning from one to the other. These timbers are directly over or a few inches below the row of mortices in the lower timbers at the bottom of the creek. Scantling, from six to eight inches square, and ten to twelve feet long, with a tenon on one end, so as easily to enter the mortices in the timber in the bottom of the creek, are prepared and stood up perpendicularly, the lower end in

the mortice, and the upper leaning against the timbers which span the abutments. Then loose boards are placed on the upper side of these studs or posts, which are firmly held to their place by the weight of the water. Thus the dam is completed. When we wish to make a Pond Freshet we go to the upper dams on the different branches of the creek, some of which are twelve miles above Titusville, and commence about midnight either to pull with a lever or chain, or cut away these studs, and the water all rushes out of the dam at once. We then wait until this water gets into or commences running over the next dam, and then cut it away, and keep repeating this process until we come to the lower dam three miles below Titusville. When it, which is a very large dam, is cut, we have let loose all in one body, in some cases the water of seventeen dams, which makes a rise of from twenty-two to thirty inches above the highest rock on the swiftest ripple. The studs are again put in, water collects, and the mill-men saw and grind until they are all stopped from twelve to forty-eight hours by the next Pond Freshet."

The shippers and boatmen, having been notified of the day upon which the freshet is to take place, begin to make preparations several days previous to it. Boats are overhauled, put in order, and then towed, by men or horses, to the point on the creek from which they intend to start. The boats are then loaded and everything made ready for the coming flood which is to waft them to that much desired harbor, the mouth of the creek. About the time the freshet is expected, the boatmen stand ready to let loose their lines. A cool rushing breeze is the first sign of it, and soon after comes the swirling waters. Inexperienced boatmen generally cut their boats loose upon the first rush of water. As a matter of course, their boats run ahead of the water, and get aground upon the first ripple or shoal. The creek being very narrow, and the force of the current generally swinging the boats across it, a jam, and not unfrequently a great loss of boats and oil ensues, just from the inconsiderate haste of a few. The experienced boatmen waits at his harbor until the water commences to recede, then cuts his line loose, and trusts himself to the mercy of the swift current, and comes into port upon the highest part of the rise. The current of a first class Pond Freshet will run at the rate of six miles an hour. An ordinary one about four miles, and a small one two miles and-a-half. If the boatman meets with no obstacle, he soon anchors his craft at our wharf.

There are several points of the creek where formidable obstacles are interposed to vex the navigator. Among these are the pier at M'Clintock Bridge, and a pier, to support the machinery of a well, in the middle of the creek immediately below; the Forge Dam, through which is only a narrow passage for boats; the pier of the bridge at this place, and the bar at the mouth of the creek itself. One boat getting across the creek at either of these points is apt to cause a "jam." The boats are crushed against each other, and being generally built very light are easily broken, and if loaded with bulk oil the contents are poured into the creek. If in barrels, the boat sinks and the barrels float off, and the owner rarely recovers all of them again.

Once landed at our wharves, the boat is either unloaded, or if the water is in good boating stage, goes, after brief preparation, to Pittsburg.—*Oil City Register.*

DRIVE YOUR BUSINESS, BUT NEVER PERMIT YOUR BUSINESS TO DRIVE YOU.

We once knew a successful merchant who gave the above as the rule of his life and the key of his success. It is a motto containing certainly great wisdom, and yet comparatively few act in accordance with its teaching. To drive ones business is a proposition easily understood, but how to prevent its becoming the driver is a more difficult problem. Who does not meet every day merchants, worthy men, almost out of breath and always under high pressure during banking hours? How often, too, do we see them bowed down with premature old age, resting under the pressure of heavy business cares. These men are all permitting their business to be the driver, and we undertake to say that very few of them really enjoy one moment of their lives, while more than four-fifths of them die poor. On the other hand, were these same men willing to do less, always seeing the end from the begining, they could show at the close of life their worldly work accomplished, without taking all their time from higher and better thoughts and works, a fair balance in money made, blessed with infinite satisfaction and comfort. The evil of the day is the desire to do a large business. "If," says the enthusiast, "I can net five thousand dollars out of a year's business. I can surely realize more than twice the profit out of twice the business." This may or may not be true. If you *triple* your capital you might perhaps safely *double* your business, but not more. For it should be remembered that a larger business requires additional thought, attention, and work, and hence more capital than the proportionate increase of the business—for there will be less time for financeering. We frequently forget that when we double our business we are doubling labors and cares which are already as great as ought to be undertaken. Unless, therefore, we observe some such rule as the above, we shall find that in increasing our business we shall only be increasing our troubles, and leaving a balance at the end of life of simply so many obligations met, so much interest paid, so many extra steps taken, so many anxious days and sleepless nights passed, with nothing to the other side of the account except premature old age and disappointed hopes.

MAKING NEEDLES.

Needles are made of steel wire. The wire is first cut by shears, from coils, into the length of the needles to be made. After a batch of such bits of wire have been cut off they are placed in a hot furnace, and then taken out and rolled backward and forward on a table till they are straight. They are now to be ground. The needle pointer then takes up two dozen or so of the wires and rolls them between his thumb and fingers, with their ends on the grindstone, first one end and then the other. Next is a machine which flattens and gutters the heads of ten thousand needles in an hour. Next comes the punching of the eyes, by a boy, so fast that the eyes can hardly keep pace with him. The splitting follows, which is running a fine wire through a dozen of perhaps of these twine needles. A woman with a little anvil before her files between the heads and separates them.

They are now complete needles, but they are rough and rusty, and easily bent. The hardening comes next. They are heated in batches in a furnace, and when red hot are thrown into a pan of cold water. Next

they must be tempered, and this is done by rolling them backward and forward on a hot metal plate. The polishing still remains to be done. On a very coarse cloth needles are spread to the number of forty or fifty thousand. Emery dust is strewed over them, oil is sprinkled and soft soap is daubed over; the cloth is rolled hard up, and with several others of the same kind thrown into a sort of wash pot to roll to and fro twelve hours or more. They come out dirty enough, but after rinsing in clean hot water, and tossing in sawdust, they become bright and are ready to be sorted and put up for sale.

PAPER STOCK FROM WOOD.

An old paper manufacturer writes with great confidence and enthusiasm of a new process for reducing wood to paper pulp, which has been discovered by Prof. CHADBOURNE, of Williams and Bowdoin colleges. It depends upon a combination of chemical and mechanical principles, by which the woody fibres are alike strengthened and separated from each other. The process is pronounced by practical paper makers and patent examiners as entirely unique, and quite certain in results. It involves no change of machinery, and no additional expense, except for the pulp machine, which will cost from fifty to one hundred dollars. If no unforseen difficulty arises in working in on a large scale, it will reduce the cost of paper pulp to less than one-half its present value, or to some forty or fifty dollars a ton. The invention is now in the hands of one of the largest and most energetic paper manufacturers in the country, a patent has been applied for, and in due time the full value of the process will be tested on a large scale.

The Boston *Journal* is printed on paper made of wood, but whether the process of manufacture is the one above referred to, we cannot say. The paper presents a clear surface, is of soft and firm texture, and admirably adapted for newspaper purposes. The *Journal* states, that the specimens it has thus far used, is not a fair test of what the manufacturers propose to do. All who have to use paper, (and who does not?) will wish the manufacturers abundant success.

POPULATION OF CHICAGO.

The Controller took the census of Chicago during the month of October last, and ascertained the population to be as follows:

South division	42,280
West division	55,965
North division	35,523
Total	133,768
Population in 1860	109,263
Increase in two years and four months	24,505

The census of 1860 was taken for June. The increase has therefore been 10,000 inhabitants a year.

COTTON PLANTING UNDER GOVERNMENT A FAILURE.

An important fact appears in the Port Royal correspondence of the New York *Tribune*, which is, that the effort of the government to cultivate cotton, under military direction, is a failure. The correspondent says:

It is understood that General HUNTER will direct the suspension of the cultivation of cotton on the plantations worked under the auspices of the government during the coming season. He proposes to have all the soil devoted to the raising of corn, in order to afford some direct relief to the Subsistence Department, and decrease as much as possible the drafts of this department upon the Federal Treasury.

One of the reasons for the change is the discrepancy between the financial profits of last year's cotton crop and the government capital invested in it. It is true, uncontrollable meteorological causes had most to do with the unsatisfactory crop; but in the present straitened condition of the national finances, it is well argued, similar investments of uncertain promise must be discountenanced.

Another reason is the desire of General HUNTER to make as many of the able bodied plantation hands available for service in the army and fatigue duty as possible. Corn, potatoes, etc., can be well raised by the women.

If the cotton culture cannot be prosecuted with a financial profit at Port Royal, we may reasonably doubt whether it can anywhere. From that quarter in fewer years have come the most abundant crops; the soil is prolific; the climate is the most favorable. Everything favored success; but where fortunes have been made heretofore, we now see fortunes lost in futile experiments.

LIVING AND MEANS

The world is full of people who can't imagine why they don't prosper like their neighbors, when the real obstacle is not in banks or tariffs, in bad public policy or hard times, but in their own extravagance and heedless ostentation. The young clerk marries and takes a house, which he proceeds to furnish twice as expensively as he can afford, and then his wife, instead of taking hold to help him earn a livelihood by doing her own work, must have a hired servant to help spend his limited earnings. Ten years afterwards you will find him struggling on under a load of debts and children, wondering why luck was always against him, while his friends regret his unhappy destitution and financial ability. Had they from the first been frank and honest, he need not have been so unlucky. The single man "hired out" in the country at ten to fifteen dollars per month, who contrives to dissolve his year's earnings in frolic's and fine clothes; the clerk who has five hundred a year, and melts fifty of it into liquor and cigars, are paralleled by the young merchant who fills a house with costly furniture, gives dinners, and drives a fast horse on the strength of the profits he expects to realize when his goods are all sold and his notes all paid. Let a man have a genius for spending, and whether his income be a dollar a day or a dollar a minute, it is equally certain to prove inadequate. The man who (being single) does not save money on six dollars a week, will not be apt to on sixty; and he who does not lay up something in his first year of independent exertion, will be pretty apt to wear a poor man's hair into his grave.

THE

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AND

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THE

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AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MARCH, 1863.

LOTTERY, OR BONUS LOANS.

SHOWING THEIR USE IN EUROPE, AND THE FEASIBILITY OF THEIR ADOPTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

COMMUNICATED TO THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY JOHN F. ENTZ.

Among the various means employed by European governments for raising money, Lottery Loans have played a conspicuous part. Not only Austria, who has developed the system to a larger extent than any other State, but several of the smaller principalities have from time to time come into the market, and have thereby conquered many difficulties which they might have encountered unsuccessfully if they had applied for means by the usual mode.

As it may prove interesting for those unacquainted with this description of loans, I have extracted from the latest edition of Nelkenbrecher's *Taschenbuch*, published in 1858, and from other commercial German works, a list of all the latest Lottery Loans, with all the information on the subject that I have been able to gather.

The adopted title of Lottery Loan is an unfortunate and scarcely an appropriate one, as the word conveys an idea of a certain gambling system, which, notwithstanding all the statutory enactments of nearly all the States of the Union, had not been entirely extirpated. Lotteries, as known in this country, extract the hard earnings of the poor to enrich the managers, and to distribute a few prizes among a small number whom Dame Fortune may favor. Thousands lose all; while a few are receiving an uncertain return, only to nurse the passion for continued gambling, and to go into it still more extensively. But Lottery Loans are very different. Nobody loses what he has staked, but receives it back some time or other with interest, though the latter at a moderate rate, the excess being divided in prizes of various dimensions to a number of the bondholders.

There are, therefore, no blanks with a total or even a partial loss on the investment, while the holder has a chance of receiving a bonus, if the number on his bond should draw one of the prizes. The title of "Bonus Loan" would therefore be a more suitable one, the only uncertain chance being, who shall be so lucky as to receive one of the bonuses, besides the amount he has laid out?

The country is unfortunately in such a position that borrowing cannot be avoided, and its credit abroad being low, we have to look for the means to meet our liabilities among our own people. Our wants are so enormous, and will be for many years to come, that it is our imperative duty to try to discover, and to adopt the most effective and least expensive mode for securing the means to satisfy these wants, and save us from bankruptcy.

The issue of paper money must have a limit, if we ever expect to redeem it. Loans redeemable in twenty or thirty years may be put into the market, but they are at the mercy of the banks and capitalists. The larger the amount offered the more the prices will be depressed. Yet the money must be raised at any cost, and what that cost will be depends much upon the plan adopted.

If we succeed in borrowing, the time will of course come when the debt must be paid off, and if the internal revenue is scarcely sufficient to pay the interest on it and our current expenses, the natural consequence will be, that we must renew the debt by new loans, perpetuating our unfortunate position to an endless period. Some plan, then, must be adopted which will give us the money at a low rate of interest, so that we can pay a part of the principal each year.

Few have, perhaps, closely calculated the cost of a loan, and will be astonished when they see the following result of one for thirty years of $300,000,000, at six per cent per annum, payable half-yearly:

Nine millions of dollars paid every six months will accumulate in thirty years to.....	$1,467,480,933
Add principal due at the end of the period.....	300,000,000
Total cost to the Treasury.....	$1,767,480,933

In this calculation money is valued at six per cent, compounded half-yearly, which is its actual cost, and the result is the aggregate amount laid out for payment of interest and for the final redemption of the loan.

By a Lottery Loan, as it is called in Europe, or by a Bonus Loan, as I would prefer to call it, issued in bonds of $100 each, we would establish a truly popular loan, accessible to all. It would be taken by moneyed corporations and by capitalists for investment, it would probably be also eagerly sought after by private individuals of small means, receiving principal with a moderate rate of interest, and a fair chance of securing one of the bonuses or prizes.

An illustration will best explain its practical working, and show the situation in which the Treasury would be at the end of the term, as compared with an ordinary loan.

Suppose a loan of $300,000,000, issued in 3,000,000 of bonds of $100 each, of which $10,000,000 are to be redeemed every year, with interest at 4 per cent, and arrears of interest, the interest being only paid at redemption.

		Accumulation.			Accumulation.
1864.....	$104	$57,755,433	1879.....	$164	$37,522,014
1865.....	108	56,533,821	1880.....	168	36,230,736
1866.....	112	55,262,198	1881.....	172	34,964,059
1867.....	116	53,950,276	1882.....	176	33,723,420
1868.....	120	52,606,872	1883.....	180	32,510,002
1869.....	124	51,239,923	1884.....	184	31,324,767
1870.....	128	49,856,560	1885.....	188	30,168,481
1871.....	132	48,463,170	1886.....	192	29,041,723
1872.....	136	47,065,464	1887.....	196	27,944,914
1873.....	140	45,668,529	1888.....	200	26,878,328
1874.....	144	44,276,882	1889.....	204	25,842,110
1875.....	148	42,894,519	1890.....	208	24,835,288
1876.....	152	41,524,961	1891.....	212	23,860,787
1877.....	156	40,171,291	1892.....	216	22,915,440
1878.....	160	38,836,200	1893.....	220	22,000,000
		$726,106,099			$439,763,069
					726,106,099
Total in 1893.....					$1,165,869,168
Deduct from cost of an ordinary loan at six per cent....					1,767,480,933
Margin left for bonuses.....					$601,611,765

The bonds being drawn in 3,000 series, each numbered from No. 1 to 100,000. A drawing would be made every year of 100 series, composing 100,000 bonds, to be paid off six months afterwards with interest accrued, and entitled to such bonus as may be awarded to it by a subsequent drawing of prizes. Similar drawings of series and prizes to be made every year thereafter until the whole are redeemed.

Let us now see what the accumulation of $10,000,000 paid every year will be, in order to find the amount which may be divided as bonuses.

AT SIX PER CENT, COMPOUNDED HALF-YEARLY.

		Accumulation.			Accumulation.
1864....	$10,000,000	$55,534,010	1879....	$10,000,000	$22,879,277
1865....	"	52,346,130	1880....	"	21,565,913
1866....	"	49,341,249	1881....	"	20,327,941
1867....	"	46,508,859	1882....	"	19,161,034
1868....	"	43,839,060	1883....	"	18,061,112
1869....	"	41,322,519	1884....	"	17,024,331
1870....	"	38,950,437	1885....	"	16,047,064
1871....	"	36,714,523	1886....	"	15,125,897
1872....	"	34,606,959	1887....	"	14,257,609
1873....	"	32,620,378	1888....	"	13,439,164
1874....	"	30,747,835	1889....	"	12,667,701
1875....	"	28,982,783	1890....	"	11,940,523
1876....	"	27,319,053	1891....	"	11,255,088
1877....	"	25,750,828	1892....	"	10,609,000
1878....	"	24,272,625	1893....	"	10,000,000
		$568,857,248			$234,361,654
					568 857,248
					$803,218,902

By this proportion we find that prizes amounting to	
$5,000,000 would accumulate to.....	$401,609,451
6,000,000 " "	481,931,341
7,000,000 " "	562,253,231
7,500,000 " "	602,414,176
It follows from the above calculation, that having a margin over and above the payment of principal and interest of.....	$601,611,765
We could nearly allow for prizes $7,500,000, making	602,414,176
Presenting a loss to the Treasury of only.....	$802,411

But if the prizes were $7,000,000, or $562,253,231, there would be a balance in the Treasury of $39,358,534.

If the former amount of $7,500,000 were granted, the annual prizes or bonuses might be fixed as follows:

Prizes.			
10 of	$100,000	each.....	$1,000,000
20 "	50,000	"	1,000,000
40 "	25,000	"	1,000,000
100 "	10,000	"	1,000,000
200 "	5,000	"	1,000,000
400 "	2,500	"	1,000,000
1,000 "	1,000	"	1,000,000
1,000 "	500	"	500,000
2,770			$7,500,000

Making one prize for every thirty-six bonds.

By such an arrangement, it is fair to presume that the whole loan would be rapidly taken up at par, and divided in small parcels among the whole population, and perhaps that the allurements of handsome bonuses would create a lively demand from Europe, confidence in it being increased by the reflection that a loan divided among the poorer classes would be less likely than any other ever to be repudiated.

A most important feature in this arrangement is, that for a number of years the annual payment for principal, interest, and prizes would scarcely exceed the sum required to pay the annual interest on an ordinary loan, though gradually increasing towards the latter part, when returning prosperity would enable us to meet the larger demands more easily even than we can the smaller ones in our present embarrassed condition. But a still more satisfactory point is obtained, viz.: the gradual cancellation of the debt, which, at the end of the thirty years will be entirely paid, while in an ordinary loan it remains still in existence.

European quotations of Lottery Loans show that after the drawing of series, and before the drawing of prizes, the bonds bring a handsome premium. This would no doubt be the case with us, as the expectation of receiving the principal with interest, and perhaps one of the large prizes, would give a strong impetus to speculation.

It may be remarked, that the low rate of four per cent, not payable every year, but only when the bonds become due, might be considered a poor investment, where such is the chief object. Let us therefore see what result five per cent would produce:

		Accumulation.			Accumulation.
1864.....	$105	$58,310,273	1879.....	$180	$41,192,698
1865.....	110	57,580,743	1880.....	185	39,896,938
1866.....	115	56,742,479	1881.....	190	38,623,688
1867.....	120	55,810,631	1882.....	195	37,364,016
1868.....	125	54,798,825	1883.....	200	36,122,225
1869.....	130	53,719,274	1884.....	205	34,899,878
1870.....	135	52,583,090	1885.....	210	33,698,835
1871.....	140	51,400,332	1886.....	215	32,520,679
1872.....	145	50,180,090	1887.....	220	31,366,740
1873.....	150	48,930,767	1888.....	225	30,236,118
1874.....	155	47,659,144	1889.....	230	29,135,712
1875.....	160	46,372,459	1890.....	235	28,060,229
1876.....	165	45,076,437	1891.....	240	27,012,211
1877.....	170	43,776,407	1892.....	245	25,992,050
1878.....	175	42,477,093	1893.....	250	25,000,000
		$765,418,038			$491,121,417
					765,418,038
					$1,256,539,455
Cost of an ordinary loan.....					1,767,480,933
Margin for prizes					$510,941,478
Prizes amounting to $6,250,000 would amount to.....					$502,011,813
Leaving still a balance in the Treasury of.....					$8,929,665

Which proves that even at that more satisfactory rate, prizes amounting to $6,250,000 might be granted, and there would still remain in the Treasury a gain of nearly $9,000,000.

It will be perceived by the preceeding explanation that even the most unfortunate holder, whose bond may be drawn only at the end of the term, and perhaps without having obtained a prize, will receive back his money with interest; this cannot, therefore, be called gambling, and it can offer no reasons for objection even to the strictest moralist. Still, there may be prejudice in the mind of some, who, without considering that the so-called prizes allotted to a part of the holders, and to be drawn in the same manner as a Lottery, are in addition to the full repayment of their advances, might still think it an unclean thing to touch.

To quiet these croakers, the loan might be arranged differently, in a manner that would perhaps even prove more attractive and satisfactory to all parties. In the annexed list of European Lottery Loans, it will be found that the city of Lyons, in France, has issued a loan of about 8,000,0000 francs, redeemable in fifty annual instalments, without prizes, but in lieu of them, every bond of 1,000 francs receives when redeemed an addition of 250 francs, every bondholder being therefore certain to receive, besides the annually paid interest of five per cent, a bonus of twenty-five per cent on the principal.

The city of Liege, in Belgium, has likewise a similar provision, repaying 100 francs for every bond of 80 francs, but the interest only two per cent, which allows them to grant also prizes from 50 upwards to 60,000 francs.

Upon this principle a loan might be arranged without prizes, but allowing a bonus to every bondholder when his bond becomes payable, as fixed by annual drawings, and paying interest on the whole loan at the rate of four or five per cent per annum, by coupons attached and made payable once a year.

The following computation will show the amount of interest at the rate of four per cent that would be paid every year, and its accumulation at the end of the thirty years, ten million dollars principal being paid off every year at the same time:

1864...	$12,000,000	$66,602,204	1879..	$6,000,000	$13,727,566
1865..	11,600,000	60,721,511	1880..	5,600,000	12,076,911
1866..	11,200,000	55,262,198	1881..	5,200,000	10,570,529
1867..	10,800,000	50,229,568	1882..	4,800,000	9,197,296
1868..	10,400,000	45,592,623	1883..	4,400,000	7,946,889
1869..	10,000,000	41,322,519	1884..	4,000,000	6,809,732
1870..	9,600,000	37,392,418	1885..	3,600,000	5,776,943
1871..	9,200,000	33,777,361	1886..	3,200,000	4,840,287
1872..	8,800,000	30,454,124	1887..	2,800,000	3,992,130
1873..	8,400,000	27,401,117	1888..	2,400,000	3,225,399
1874..	8,000,000	24,598,268	1889..	2,000,000	2,533,540
1875..	7,600,000	22,026,915	1890..	1,600,000	1,910,483
1876..	7,200,000	19,669,718	1891..	1,200,000	1,350,611
1877..	6,800,000	17,510,563	1892..	800,000	848,720
1878..	6,400,000	15,534,480	1893..	400,000	400,000
		$548,095,587			$85,207,036
					548,095,587

Accumulation of interest paid at four per cent.....	$633,302,623
To find the result of coupons bearing 5 per cent add ¼....	158,325,656
Accumulation of interest at five per cent.....	$791,628,279
The annual payment of interest on the whole loan would therefore cost the Treasury in 30 years, at 4 per cent...	$633,302,623
Add $10,000,000 per annum of principal.....	803,218,902
Add 40 per cent, or $40 bonus on each bond.....	321,287,561
Total cost.....	1,757,809,086
Total cost of a loan in the ordinary way.....	1,767,480,933
Gain to the Treasury	$9,671,847

If the interest allowed were 5 per cent per annum—

Accumulation of interest in 30 years.....	$791,628,279
Add $10,000,000 per annum of principal.....	803,218,902
Add 20 per cent, or $20 bonus on each bond.....	160,643,780
Total cost to the Treasury in 30 years	1,755,490,961
Cost in the ordinary way.....	1,767,480,933
Gain to the Treasury.....	$11,989,972

Every bondholder would then receive interest at five per cent every year, and when the bond is redeemed a bonus of $120, and all would be in the same position, with the only exception that there would be a manifest advantage in favor of the bonds whose redemption is fixed by each annual drawing of the series, and which are, consequently, certain of receiving the bonus at an early day, while the others have to run the chance of obtaining it only at a remote period.

By this arrangement, even if not by the other, all objections against gambling are removed. The holder of the bond receives a good interest, with fair prospects of a large profit, while the government throws out great inducements to take the loan at par, and remains independent of capitalists, who will do all in their power to depress the prices.

It will be perceived that in the two first examples simple interest is paid only when the principal is redeemed, the Treasury having the use of it until thus paid. This gives it a great advantage, and enables it to make the prizes or bonuses so much larger, assuming that it is willing to apply to this purpose the full cost of an ordinary loan sold at par. In the last example the interest is paid annually on the whole debt by coupons attached. In the former way the annual payments increase from year to year, while in the latter they decrease—the principal being annually reduced to the extent of $10,000,000. The inducements offered by both modes to the purchaser are very great, and it is more than probable that the whole loan would be rapidly taken up in large and small sums by the whole population, and at par and perhaps even at a good premium, while an ordinary loan is subject to the dictation of banks and capitalists, to whom alone it is accessible, and who may make their terms very onerous. That the issue of bonds, now under discussion by Congress, will only be taken at a heavy discount, is already certain; and what the consequence of such a large amount being thrown upon the market will be, is a matter of conjecture; but we anticipate a most ruinous result. It is obvious that to receive 50, 60, or 70 per cent to pay interest on $100, and to pay finally the whole $100, must cause a serious loss to the Treasury. Borrowing money at a discount would be equal to the following rates of interest, assuming the value of money six per cent, compounded half-yearly,

At.....	90	80	70	60	50	per cent.
Six per cent loan for 20 years.....	6.96	8.16	9 71	11.67	14.68	per annum.
" " 40 "	6.74	7.66	8.88	10.41	12.62	"

It is a matter for reflection whether a bonus loan with prizes to a few, or one with an universal advance to all, would meet with greater patronage from the public; and it must be likewise carefully considered whether the large prizes connected with a loan on which the interest is reserved until the payment of principal, would offer a satisfactory compensation for the privation of income, in comparison with a loan on which the interest is paid annually.

If the granting of prizes is deemed unobjectionable, or preferable, the two last modes of loans, with coupons at 4 or 5 per cent, would permit the following bonuses:

It has been shown that in a loan at 4 per cent for 30 years after paying off annually $10,000,000 of principal and the interest on the whole loan, there would remain in the

Treasury at the end of the term a surplus of.....	$330,952,409
Which would be equivalent to annual prizes amounting to	4,120,000
And in a loan at 5 per cent, a surplus of.....	172,633,753
Equal to annual prizes of.....	2,150,000

In lieu of paying every bondholder in the former case a bonus of $40, and in the latter, of $20, at redemption. This surplus might also be applied to a regular but smaller bonus to all, and the remainder to annual prizes, of course much reduced.

The examples offered are all predicated upon a loan for 30 years. If the loan were extended to a longer period—say 40 or 50 years, the term of most European loans—the advantages would appear much greater.

These suggestions are respectfully tendered to the careful consideration of our financiers, and I flatter myself that they are well worthy the attention of Congress. They seem to me to present a choice of most effective means to relieve in a most satisfactory manner the urgent wants of the government, and a solution of the highly perplexing and most important financial question now before Congress.

LIST OF LOTTERY LOANS ISSUED IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF EUROPE.

ANHALT DESSAU, DUCHY OF.

Lottery loan of 1857, for 2,000,000 rix dollars, in shares of 100 rix dollars; interest 3½ per cent by coupons. Divided into 400 series of 50 numbers each. The drawing of series takes place every year on the 15th September, and of prizes on the 15th of January following. Principal, interest, and prizes are payable on the 1st of April.

ANSBACH, IN THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

Lottery loan, called the Ansbach Gunzenhausen Railroad Loan, of 1856, for 1,750,000 florins, in certificates of 7 florins; divided into 5,000 series of 50 numbers, and redeemable in 50 years. The smallest prize till 1866 is 8 florins; after that period 14 florins. The largest prize in each year is 25,000 florins.

BERLIN, KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

Lottery loan of 1855, for 15,000,000 rix dollars; coupons payable 1st of April. Redemption annually from 1856 to 1895, according to programme. (No other particulars given.)

BRUSSELS, KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

City Lottery loan of 1853. Drawing of prizes 31st of December, and payment of principal, interest, and prizes 31st of March. Certificates for 100 francs.

DARMSTADT, GRAND DUCHY OF HESSIA.

Lottery loan of the Grand Duke, of 1834, for 2,375,000 florins, through ROTHSCHILD of Frankfort. Premium in certificates of 25 florins. Drawing 15th February; payment three months after.

HAMBURG.

City Lottery loan, for public buildings, of 1845, for 9,600,000 marks, in certificates of 100 marks. Redemption in forty-eight annual instalments. Drawing of series on the 1st of July; of prizes, 1st of September; payment, 1st of November. Highest prize at last drawing in 1894, 120,000 marks, and smallest, 200 marks.

CARLSRICH, GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

Lottery loan of 1840, for 5,000,000 florins, in shares of 50 florins. At the last drawing, which will take place in September, 1865, the lowest prize will be 75 florins, and the highest, 50,000 florins.

Lottery loan of 1845, for 15,000,000 florins, in shares of 35 florins, and in series of 50 shares. Drawing of series every three months, and of prizes one month afterwards. In the last drawing of 1885, the smallest prize will be 65 florins, the highest, 40,000 florins.

CASSEL, ELECTORATE OF HESSIA.

Lottery loan of 1845, for 6,500,000 rix dollars, in shares of 40 and half shares of 20 rix dollars. Redemption, as per programme, till 1895.

SCHAUMBERG-LIPPE, PRINCIPALITY OF.

Lottery loan of 1846, for the building of a railroad, for 1,500,000 rix dollars. Shares 25 rix dollars, in annual redemption till 1886, when the smallest prize will be 58 rix dollars, and the largest, 20,000 rix dollars. Drawing of series on the 1st of April; of prizes, 1st of July, and payment of principal and prizes 1st of October.

LIEGE, KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

City Lottery loan, for 7,200,000 francs, in shares of 80 francs, with 2 per cent interest. Drawing of series every year, on the 1st of August, when every share redeemed receives 100 francs. Every year one share receives a prize, varying from 50,000 to 60,000 francs.

LYONS, EMPIRE OF FRANCE.

City loan, for public buildings, of 1854, for 8,354,000 francs, in certificates for 1,000 francs, with 5 per cent interest, payable in January and July. Redeemed in 50 annual installments, when each certificate receives 1,250 francs.

MARSEILLES, EMPIRE OF FRANCE.

City Lottery loan of 1849, for 9,000,000 francs. Redemption annually till 1865. Interest 5 per cent. Drawing of prizes annually.

NEUCHATEL, SWITZERLAND.

Lottery loan of 1857, for 1,000,000 francs, in shares of 10 francs. Regular drawing of prizes. Highest prize 100,000 francs.

Lottery loan of the Neuchatel Railroad Company, for 2,000,000 francs, in certificates for 20 francs, which are to be redeemed by half yearly drawings on the 2d of January and 1st of July, until 1903. Drawing of prizes, 1st of February and 1st of August; payment three months after. The smallest prizes are from 25 to 65 francs.

OSTEND, KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

City Lottery loan of 1858, for 1,000,000 francs, in certificates of 1,000 francs. Annual redemption in 55 years; smallest prize 30 francs.

PARIS, EMPIRE OF FRANCE.

City Lottery loan of 1852, for 50,000,000 francs, in certificates of 1,000 francs, with 5 per cent interest. Drawing of series and prizes half-yearly. The first drawn 60 numbers receive prizes according to prospectus.

TRIESTE, ITALY.

City Lottery loan of 1855, for 2,400,000 florins, in certificates of 100 florins. Interest 4½ per cent, payable 1st of June by the city treasury; redemption annually with prizes till 1901. The first drawn number receives the highest prize in each drawing, (30,000, 25,000, and 20,000 florins); the smallest prizes are always 100 florins.

TURIN, KINGDOM OF ITALY.

Lottery loan of 1834, for 27,000,000 francs, in certificates of 1,000 francs, with interest at 4 per cent. Semi-annual drawing of series and prizes. Last drawing 1st of November, 1870, when the largest prize will be 50,000 francs, the smallest 1,000 francs.

Lottery loan of 1844, for 3,600,000 francs, in certificates of 36 francs. Last drawing 1st of May, 1869, when the highest prize will be 50,000 francs, the smallest, 48 francs.

Lottery loan of 1849, for 19,902,000 francs, in shares payable to bearer of 1,000 francs. Interest 4 per cent, payable half-yearly, 1st of April and 1st of October. Drawing of series 31st of January and 31st of July. Last drawing in 1871.

Lottery loan of 1850, for 18,000,000 francs, with coupons at 4 per cent, payable 1st of February and 1st of August. Drawing of series, 31st of January and 30th of November. Last drawing in 1887.

VIENNA, EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA.

Lottery loan of 1834, for 25,000,000 of florins, in 50,000 certificates of 500 florins (subdivided also in partial shares of 100 florins.) Twenty certificates form a series; there are consequently 2,500 series. From 1836 to 1860 there was, on the 1st of February, a drawing of the prescribed number of series, and on the 1st of May following, a drawing of prizes, the highest being 320,000 florins.

Lottery loan of 1839, for 30,000,000 florins, in certificates of 250 florins, (also in partial shares of 50 florins.) The last drawing of series, of which there are 6,000, composed of 20 certificates, takes place in 1878. The smallest prize will then be 500 florins, the largest 300,000 florins. The drawing of series and prizes takes place only every eighteen months.

Lottery loan of 1854, in shares of 250 florins, bearing interest at the rate of 4 per cent, payable 1st of June. Fifty shares form a series; drawing of series each 2d of January and 1st of July; of prizes, 1st of April and 1st of October. The last drawing will be in 1904, when the smallest prize will be 300, and the largest, 200,000 florins.

Lottery loan of the Austrian *Credit Mobilier*, for the Austrian Railroad, for 42,000,000 florins, in 4,200 series of 100 shares of 100 florins each, guaranteed by the government. Series and prizes are drawn at the same time. Until 1880 there are four drawings yearly; till 1898, three; till 1923, two, and the last year, 1924, only one.

Lottery loan of the Austrian Donau Steam Navigation Company of 1857, of 6,000,000 florins, with interest and prizes. Drawings annually till 1902, on the 1st of July.

Lottery loan of 1860, of which I find no particulars.

Lottery loan of Prince ESTERHAZY, for 7,000,000 florins, in shares of 40 florins. Annual drawings till 1868; smallest prize 72 florins, largest, 60,000 florins.

Lottery loan of Prince WINDISCHGRATZ, of 1846, for 2,000,000 florins, in shares of 20 florins. Drawing half-yearly, 1st of June and 1st of December; smallest prize 36 florins, largest, 20,000 florins, except in last drawing of 1893, when it will be 25,000 florins.

Lottery loan of Count WALDSTEIN WARTEMBERG, of 1847, for 2,070,000 florins, in shares of 20 florins. Drawings, 15th of July and 15th of January, till 1900; smallest prize 30 florins, largest, 30,000 florins, payable six months after drawing.

There are various other Lottery loans, viz: of KAUNITZ, PALFFY, SCHWARZENBERG, SALM, CLARY, ST. GENOIS, KEIGLEVICH, BATHYANY, HARDIK, KAROLY, STRACHWITZ, VICZAY—noblemen and extensive landowners in Hungary, etc., who, notwithstanding their large incomes, are often obliged to borrow on the pledge of their estates.

GOLD AND SILVER MINING IN CALIFORNIA AND NEVADA TERRITORY DURING 1862.*

THE FLOODS OF THE WINTER OF 1861–62.

THE immediate damage to the miners in California from the floods of the winter of 1861–62 was immense. It stopped mining operations of nearly all kinds in many districts for a month or six weeks, throwing large numbers out of employment, while at the same time, by sweeping away the bridges and rendering the roads impassable, it cut off their supplies of provisions and greatly enhanced the cost of living. The high waters in all the streams carried away the implements of the miners, and destroyed their reservoirs, ditches, flumes, and machinery, rendering great outlays of labor and money necessary to replace them. The larger ditches, flumes, dams, and reservoirs owned by incorporated companies, (the principal of which we have described in our former reviews,) which furnish almost the entire supply of water for mining purposes throughout the richest and most densely populated districts, all suffered great injury, and were to a great extent useless while the necessary repairs were being made, and mining operations along their lines were consequently altogether prevented or greatly circumscribed and impeded. The washing away of the costly head dam of the Middle Yuba Canal Company cut off the greater part of the supply of water along the ridges for a distance of nearly thirty miles, stopping hydraulic mining in the districts surrounding North San Juan, Sweetland, Burchville, and French Corral. The quartz leads were many of them filled with water so that ordinary means of drainage were unavailing and work was impossible. At Grass Valley alone, 1,500 quartz miners were thrown out of employment, entailing a loss in wages and profits to the mill-owners estimated at $10,000 per day. Large excavations and deep cuts made for drainage, and otherwise to facilitate the working of deep claims, were filled up with worthless soil and gravel, requiring months of profitless labor to remove, before they could again be worked at all, sometimes even causing their entire abandonment.

On the other hand, the immense quantity of water which fell was not without its compensating benefits. Many of the smaller gulches and higher flats were thus supplied with sufficient water to permit their being worked with great success by the miners thrown out of employment elsewhere. Besides this, the beds of many of the rivers, creeks, and ravines, which had become filled with worthless tailings from hydraulic and other claims, were suddenly cleared out, often to a depth of ten feet or more, so that the bed rock could again be reached and worked with profit. Many bars and creeks, almost abandoned for years before, have from this cause paid well during the past season, and sometimes the new deposits of gold, washed by the water from earth carried off, were very valuable, though never as coarse or heavy as those first found, which were the un-

* This article is prepared from the annual statement in the San Francisco *Mercantile Gazette and Prices Current*, of January 9, 1863.

disturbed result of the same causes operating for untold centuries. In some districts the benefits thus accruing more than equalled the damages caused. This was the case at many places in Sierra County, and also along Yreka Creek and Scott River, at Lancha Plana, Poverty Bar, and elsewhere, and an ounce a day to the hand was frequently the yield of the claims thus improved.

YIELD OF THE MINES.

During the past year the operations in gold mining have usually been attended with fair average success. The gradual diminution of the yield of the older fields has been compensated by the new discoveries that have been made in other vicinities, so that the total gold product of the year has probably fallen but little, if at all, behind that of the past four or five seasons. The tabular statement at the end of this article contains a full exhibit of the product of the past year as compared with the two previous.

PLACER MINING.

From the northern portions of the State very favorable reports were received during the spring and early portion of the summer, the large quantities of snow upon the mountains, by its gradual melting, extending the season during which the dry diggings and smaller streams could be worked with advantage. In Trinity County the gulch and hill diggings all paid well, and the dry diggings yielded better than ever before. Near Weaverville a stratum of pay dirt containing much decomposed quarts was found, and a square mile of the land was immediately taken up in claims. Much of the gold was coarse, and lumps weighing from $5 to $90 were found. In Siskiyou, along Scott River and its vicinity, the yield was larger than for several years past, and a number of rich claims were mentioned, in one of which a $450 nugget was found. The river claims were worked very extensively, the number of water wheels erected being greater than ever before. On the Klamath a $100 lump and 18 ounces of other coarse gold was taken from one claim as the result of one week's work. Along the ridge on the eastern part of Yreka Valley, and on Greenhorn Creek, the pay was about $8 per day to the hand. From about Yreka similar reports have been frequently received, one claim on Yreka flats being mentioned as paying $150 per day.

In Shasta County about Roaring River, Janesville, and Union Flat, the miners were said to be very successful, and earning from $5 up to $17 per day. A number of hydraulic claims were also opened. The Bunker Hill Company at the mouth of Middle Creek, three miles from Shasta, in April last were reported to have taken out daily for two weeks from 6 to 10 pounds of gold, worth $19 per ounce, only four men being employed.

In Sierra County, about Nelson Point, the miners were making in April from $5 to $20 per day. Tunneling operations continued to be prosecuted successfully in various localities. As a single instance, the Eagle Tunnel yielded $4,575 as the result of one week's work of 19 men. The claim was held in 14 shares, and valued at $64,000, one share being sold during the past season at that rate.

At Michigan Bluff, midway between Downieville and Placerville, on

the North Branch of the Middle Fork of the American River, hydraulic mining has been vigorously and successfully prosecuted. Owing to the formation of the land, the sluices are laid in long tunnels 100 feet under ground. The water is carried in iron pipes upwards of 3,000 feet, and has a fall of 300 feet. Seven of such tunnels were in use in June, and more than a dozen others were shortly to be commenced to work other claims. In El Dorado, the hydraulic claims at Grizzly Flat paid well, and many new claims were located and opened. Creeks worked every year since 1848 having been washed out by the floods were worked again the past season with profit. In Plumas, from the same causes, this class of mining was also very successful. In Butte, a number of the flats surrounding Oroville, and elsewhere, have also paid well.

In Yuba County, hydraulic mining was stopped for some time in the early part of the year, from the effects of the flood and storms, but later in the season was prosecuted with the usual vigor and success. At McFarland Hill the diggings are said for two years past never to have paid less than $8 per day to the hand. A new deposit of very rich earth was discovered in October by tunneling, and a large number of new claims were at once taken up and work commenced. At Smartsville, in BRADLEY'S hydraulic claim, in October, a blast of 500 kegs of powder was fired, for the purpose of pulverizing the hard cemented gravel, and thus preparing it for washing. The bank in front was 85 feet in height. From this a tunnel 190 feet in length was run, with seven side drifts of 10 to 15 feet long. In these the powder was deposited, and five lines of fuse carried thence to the entrance of the tunnel. For a distance of 75 feet from the entrance, the tunnel was then tightly closed, and packed or "tamped" with earth. When the explosion occurred, the hill, for a distance of 300 feet front and rear, and from the bed rock to the surface, a distance of from 85 to 120 feet, composed principally of hard gray and blue cement, was thoroughly pulverized, and the surface thrown in ridges, as though newly plowed. The cost of the blast was $3,300. The saving of labor was about 30 per cent, and one-fourth more earth can be washed per day; while the gold product is increased 25 per cent in consequence of the thorough disintegration of the soil. To wash the soil thus prepared would require a stream of 400 inches of water for over three months, for which the outlay would be $5,000, and $1,500 more would be expended for the labor required. Twenty thousand dollars was refused for the product. A still larger blast was also prepared in the same neighborhood about the same time.

In Nevada County, at Red Dog, a layer of rich but hard cement, called the "Blue Lead," is found, and as the gravel above it does not pay for washing, it is drifted out by means of tunnels, etc., and crushed in mills like quartz mills before washing. At one such mill, having six stamps of 400 pounds each, and costing only $1,600, the result of 30 hours' work was a yield of $2,700. Shortly afterwards $4,000 additional was produced. A few years ago $8,000 was lost in endeavoring to work the same claim in the usual manner. The lead is particularly rich in this vicinity, though the surrounding mines in which it is found also paid very well. At French Corral, in Pollard's claim, in March last, a tunnel 2,800 feet long was completed after two years labor. Seventy-five men were employed and 800 inches of water used in the claim, and $5,000, $17,000, and $20,000 were cleaned up at different times after operations commenced.

At Cherokee, where the surface earth was rich—but at a depth of 40 feet quicksands are encountered, notwithstanding other failures—a deep shaft was commenced, with lifting and pumping machinery, to go through the quicksand and reach the bed rock in hopes of finding gold heavier and coarser than that above it.

In Tuolumne County, in the neighborhood of Sonora and Columbia the mines did remarkably well during the past season. From the Major Mill claim, 58 pounds of gold were taken as the result of five and-a-half days' run. Its value was over $13,000. SMITH'S, CALVER & Co.'s claim in one week yielded 266 ounces. A single afternoon's work yielded 106 ounces. In June the miners were reported doing better than for a year previously. Good paying claims were particularly mentioned at Yankee Hill, Saw Mill Flat, Campbell's Flat, Brown's Flat, etc. New placer diggings were also found at Sugar Pine Creek, in which from $3 to $10 per day was made. A project was started for the drainage of the whole basin in which Columbia is situated by means of a large tunnel through Table Mountain, emptying into the Stanislaus River, by which the working of deep claims at Columbia, Shaw's Flat, Union Hill, Wood's Creek, Saw Mill Flat, and Yankee Hill would be greatly facilitated and the scale of operations greatly enlarged. Whether any action has been taken in the matter as yet we are not advised, but some such operation is needed, and would doubtless be profitable though costly. In Mariposo County, Chinamen were working and paying $4 per month license to the owners of the Fremont ranch. Being secured in the possession of their claims they were industrious and successful. Several discoveries of new placer diggings were announced as made in different parts of the country, though not of very great extent. In Tulare County, new diggings were discovered 15 miles south of White River, and extending for seven or eight miles. Five dollars per day was generally made, though the discoverers found richer spots in which their profits were much larger. In the Kern River region new placer diggings were found near Keysville.

A large number of miners visited the mines upon the Colorado River during the past season, but while a few were very successful, the majority were compelled to return empty-handed, the intense heat preventing work during the greater part of the day, and the scarcity of water rendering anything but dry washing or mining on the smallest scale impossible, and the regions away from the pools and small gulches almost uninhabitable. Water transported by donkeys was readily sold to the miners at a dollar a gallon, and the supply necessarily very limited. One thousand five hundred miners were said to be working there in June.

The only improvement noted during the past year in this class of mining was a greater saving of the gold in the shape of amalgam taken from the riffles and amalgamated coppers of sluices by means of nitric acid. It has been found that what was formerly regarded as refuse and thrown away, if slowly evaporated, frequently still yields a considerable quantity of gold. The Columbia Fluming Company thus save sufficient to pay the salary of their Superintendent. In Hunter's claim, in the same vicinity, after $2,500 had been extracted in the usual manner, $385 additional was saved. In other claims from $300 to $1,000 per annum is thus gained.

QUARTZ MINING.

Very many valuable quartz ledges have been discovered in various parts of the State during the past season, and quite a respectable number of new mills have been erected, and the older claims have been worked with fair results.

In the extreme northern part of the State a number of such discoveries were noted. The Black Bear Ledge, on Salmon River, yielded $10,000 as the result of two weeks crushing.

In Sierra County the Reis quartz lead, situated at the Buttes, above Downieville, continues to yield regularly at the rate of from $25,000 to $30,000 for every 40 days' run. Several other rich quartz leads are worked in the immediate vicinity. In El Dorado County, in June last, a very rich lead was discovered near Placerville. In Plumas County an extremely rich quartz was found in August, near the mouth of Nelson Creek. Another lead at Rich Bar is also noted for its yield. In Indian Valley, a lead 9 feet in thickness, and yielding from $60 per ton upwards, was discovered last fall, and a mill with 8 stamps was erected to work it. At Round Valley, in the same neighborhood, several mills and arrastras are in successful operation, one of which yielded $1,000 daily, and is run at an expense of only $70. In Butte County, at Cherokee, a furnace was erected for roasting quartz before crushing it, in order to decompose the sulphurets and arsenious compounds and free the gold. The experiment is said to have been attended with good success.

In Yuba County, the Harris Lode, in Brown's Valley, 12 miles from Marysville, is reported to yield at the rate of $7,000 to $8,000 per week, the vein being wide, and the rock soft and easily worked. At German Bar, on the Middle Yuba, $100,000 was taken out of the Fellows Quartz lead in a very short time—$30,000 being pounded out in a hand-mortar in a single week.

In Nevada County prospecting has been actively carried on, and a number of valuable quartz leads been discovered during the past year—from one of which, found on Massachusetts Hill, in April, $20,000 was taken the first month it was worked. From the report of the Nevada Quartz Mining Company, for the year ending February 28, 1862, it appears that in that period their mill propelled by water power, and driving 12 stamps, 5 Chile mills, 3 Bonham arrastras, and 6 Bradford's shaking tables, worked 3,735 tons of quartz, yielded $60,333. Three months time was lost owing to bad weather. The ledge contains large quantities of sulphurets of iron, and but little free gold. The weight of the amalgam, as taken up, was 15,780 ounces. When retorted, 3,715; worth $17 15 per ounce. As showing the operation of their system of extracting the gold, the amalgam was found distributed as follows: In the batteries, 3,268 ounces; in the Chile mills, 8,697 ounces; in the arrastras, 2,620 ounces; in shaking tables, 950 ounces; and on the amalgamated coppers, ounces—the value of the amalgam was $3 81 per ounce. In March, at this mill, 415 ounces were retorted; and April, 547 ounces—worth $17,000. In 1852, the Bunker Hill Company lost $80,000 in working the same ledge, in the imperfect manner then practised. Some of the ledges that are opened deepest pay as well as the others; rock from Canada Hill, at a depth of 80 feet, paying $30 per ton and upwards; and that

from the Pittsburg Ledge, at a depth of 140 feet, paying from $60 to $70. A single lot of 28 tons, crushed in September, yielded $1,700.

In Tuolumne County a number of valuable quartz discoveries have been made, while the older ledges still pay handsomely. From a new lead found at Brown's Flat, over $18,000 was pounded out in one week. The yield of the Draper Lead, at Soulsbyville, still continues to be large. A large and rich lead was found in June, at French Flat, and others at Sugar Pine Creek. From the latter, very favorable reports have frequently been noted, and it is claimed to be one of the richest now worked in the State. Ninety-five pounds of amalgam were collected as the result of five days run, on one occasion; 101 pounds of gold was the result of another week's crushing. Fifty-six tons of the rock yielded $25,000, or nearly $500 per ton, and this is stated to be but little above the average for the whole of the past summer. The mill has 8 stamps, and is said to have paid $2,000 per day for several months of the past season. These figures are as given in the local papers, but if very materially reduced, the lead would still be rich and the mill very successful. Another lead, extremely rich in gold and silver, was discovered near the summit of the Sierra Nevada in September.

In Mariposa County a number of rich quartz discoveries have been noted from time to time. The largest was a vein reported found in November near Sweet Water, 12 miles from Mariposa, and stated to be 63 feet thick, very solid and rich in gold. The miners, who have a theory about a main mother ledge, suppose this may be the one so often searched for. If the report is strictly accurate, it is the largest quarts vein yet known. From a lead found on the Merced River, two miles above the Horseshoe Bend, in one week $12,000 was taken with a mortar and arrastra. A number of water-power mills are in course of erection on the same river 35 miles above Coulterville, to work several rich leads lately found in the vicinity, in which a number of valuable streaks and pockets were found. A mill to drive 48 stamps was commenced at Princeton in May. Large quantities of rock paying from $100 to $300 per ton are taken from the vein. On Kern River a 4-stamp mill was erected eight miles above Keyesville, and the rock is said to pay $100 per ton. In the Cave District, Caldwell & Co.'s leads, nine in number, and 20 to 50 yards apart, and of good width, are said to pay from $40 to $65 per ton. One mill is in operation and several others in course of construction. In Santa Clara County, on Penitentia Creek, ten miles from San Jose, a rich quartz lead, containing silver as well as gold, was found last summer.

SILVER MINING.

The success attendant upon silver mining in Washoe, and the value of the ledges there, and the knowledge of that kind of mineral acquired by our miners, has stimulated a search for the same kind of leads in this State, and the work has not been barren of results. In Plumas County a number of such ledges have been found 12 miles from Quincy, at Spring Garden Ranch, Round Valley, and other places. The Sproul ledge is most noted as yielding rich silver rock and considerable native metal, and has been traced for several miles. Other ledges are also mentioned, shares in which sell as high as $75 per foot. A new town called Argentina has been created by the collection of miners about the junction of Garden

and Ophir creeks, and other small new settlements are also growing up, and a number of mills being erected to work the rock. One of these mills, run at an expense of $60 or $70 is said to yield $1,000 daily.

In Mariposa county a number of silver leads were found within half a dozen miles of Mariposa. A ton of rock from NEAL'S claim, in this vicinity, reduced in San Francisco, yielded $263 90 of silver and $30 in gold. Another silver ledge in which the rock is abundant and rich, was found within a couple of miles of Hornitos. In Monterey County similar discoveries are reported to have been made on Carmel river, 18 miles from Monterey.

In the Coso district, in Tulare and Buena Vista counties, mining was greatly interrupted by the Indian hostilities which existed there for several months, in the course of which the miners were driven in from all the smaller and most exposed settlements.

The principal leads have been opened to a considerable extent, and the Great Western, Great Eastern, Pioneer, Mammoth, Winoshick, and Josephine have all turned out considerable quantities of rock of good quality. The tunnel of the Coso Silver Mining Company is over 100 feet in length and strikes the ledge 300 feet below the outcrop. At the Lotta Mills the rock crushed paid $70 per ton in gold. Picked rock from the Winoshick lead, crushed at Willow Springs in April last, yielded $400 per ton. At the Josephine lead it was discovered that their previous operations had been upon a mere spur of the main vein, which, after a little prospecting, was itself discovered, and proved equal in quality to the rock previously worked. Several of these ledges claim to be the richest in the district. In the Slate range district the extensions of the first discoverers have been found rich, and taken up for a distance of 10 miles.

This kind of mining, though yet in its infancy, promises to become important. Many of the quartz leads now worked solely with a view of saving the gold, are known to contain percentages of silver, that elsewhere would be saved with great care. As more experience is obtained in Washoe, its results will be availed of here, and a considerable increase of profits will in many instances be secured.

MINING IN NEVADA TERRITORY.

The product of the mines of Nevada Territory has been variously estimated of late, but most of the computations are evidently far too high, the figures being contradicted by the treasure movement here. In such estimates it is not safe to take as a basis of calculation the high "assay of rocks" so frequently reported, nor the returns of small crushings from the different ledges, which are often selected rock picked out to be crushed for the purpose of affecting the prices of stock, or of paying off some pressing debt, or raising funds to purchase a mill or sink a shaft, or pay officers' salaries, or meet some similar special outlay, while the poorer and average rock is reserved to be worked when labor is cheaper and their facilities greater.

The most reliable figures we have been able to obtain in this city and from other sources, do not lead us to suppose that the whole production of the Territory for the year 1862 has exceeded $6,000,000. We have observed a number of other estimates in the newspapers which are much higher, one in particular purporting to be based on the amount of bullion

passing through Placerville footing up $1,680,000 per month, and $20,160,000 per annum. A comparison of these and similar figures with those showing the shipment of treasure at this port demonstrates that they are simply absurd.

A great amount of prospecting for new claims has been done and large numbers of new joint stock companies, with immense nominal capitals, formed to work the discoveries. The past year has been occupied by the owners of the older mines principally in the construction of mills and the opening of the ledges by means of shafts and tunnels, preparatory to working them. Little of this work yields any present income. A considerable number of the shorter tunnels have been completed and will be used during the present year in bringing out paying ores, and many mills are now finished or rapidly approaching completion that will add materially to the yield of 1863. Yet the majority of the more extensive tunnels and mills are still in course of construction and will not be productive for months. Very few of the companies have declared dividends, and the stockholders are lucky whose officers can manage to have mines opened without assessments. The principal profit thus far realized by the stockholders has been by the sale of their "feet," which cost originally nothing, and lucky transactions in the shares, which have fluctuated greatly during the past year, rising with every rich strike made in neighboring claims, or rich assay or crushing reported, or the approaching completion of a mill or shaft or tunnel, and falling with every disappointment in running a tunnel or sinking a shaft and failing to strike the ledge where it was presumed to be, or the prospect of further assessments, or often again the starting of an adverse claim to the mine and a threatened or actual lawsuit for its possession, and sometimes an injunction from the courts stopping all further work.

The principal towns in Nevada Territory have greatly increased in size and population during the past year, and many points that in 1861 were mere small camps of prospectors are now growing villages and towns, giving evidence of prosperity, confidence, industry and enterprise.

Virginia has increased in size more than any of the others, owing to the capital and labor expended in developing the ledges parallel to the Comstock. Large buildings have been erected in which to carry on the Patio and other silver-collecting processes, and to accommodate the miners and others at work. Long tunnels have been run to tap the veins at great depth, and drain the leads and facilitate their working. The Mt. Davidson Tunnel has changed hands and work has been resumed upon it with vigor. When completed it will open a large number of ledges at a great depth, which are now only worked near the surface, and besides determining their permanent value will clear them of water and save the expense of hoisting the rock, as the mines will then be worked from below upwards. Gold Hill has more than doubled itself, though the mills have not increased in number in proportion to the other buildings. Silver City has not grown much, but many of the leads in the vicinity have proved themselves more valuable than they were known to be last year. Dayton is also growing rapidly.

RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS OF TREASURE AT SAN FRANCISCO.

RECEIPTS FROM THE INTERIOR DURING THE YEARS 1860, 1861, AND 1862.

From the Northern Mines.

1860.	Uncoined.	Coined.	Total.
4th quarter.....	$5,887,148	$1,287,883	$7,175,031
3d quarter	7,806,271	882,793	8,689,064
2d quarter	8,923,575	1,101,083	10,024,658
1st quarter.....	6,468,052	1,676,813	8,144,865
Total for year	$29,085,046	$4,948,572	$34,033,618
1861.			
4th quarter.....	$6,078,050	$1,037,713	$7,115,763
3d quarter	7,516,121	996,390	8,512,511
2d quarter	8,410,073	701,162	9,111,235
1st quarter.....	6,617,443	968,911	7,586,354
Total for year	$28,621,687	$3,704,076	$32,325,863
1862.			
4th quarter.....	$7,922,342	$1,140,308	$9,062,650
3d quarter	8,825,129	683,696	9,508,825
2d quarter	8,516,002	735,734	9,251,736
1st quarter.....	5,684,896	876,990	6,561,886
Total for year	$30,948,369	$3,436,728	$34,385,097

From the Southern Mines.

1860.	Uncoined.	Coined.	Total.
4th quarter.....	$1,969,081	$774,128	$2,743,209
3d quarter	2,156,707	628,459	2,785,166
2d quarter	2,368,591	592,745	2,961,336
1st quarter.....	2,223,114	465,250	2,688,364
Total for year	$8,717,493	$2,460,582	$11,178,075
1861.			
4th quarter.....	$1,697,751	$530,319	$2,228,070
3d quarter	1,927,087	503,887	2,430,976
2d quarter	1,744,199	510,933	2,399,739
1st quarter.....	1,744,199	560,230	2,304,429
Total for year	$7,257,845	$2,105,369	19,363,214
1862.			
4th quarter.....	$1,765,170	$546,132	$2,311,302
3d quarter	1,981,654	410,278	2,391,932
2d quarter	1,929,445	318,261	2,247,706
1st quarter.....	925,240	278,522	1,203,762
Total for year	$6,601,509	$1,553,193	$8,154,702

RECAPITULATION.

	1860.	1861.	1862.
Uncoined	$37,802,539	$32,325,863	$37,549,878
Coined	7,409,154	9,363,214	4,989,921
Total	$45,211,693	$41,689,077	$42,539,799

EXPORTS.

During the past year the exports of treasure have been as follows. We have separated the American from the foreign coin :

	American.	Foreign.	Total.
January	$2,844,811 85	$66,414 00	$2,911,225 85
February	3,011,382 88	99,250 00	3,110,632 88
March	2,292,305 71	12,000 00	2,304,214 51
April	2,622,382 51	24,382 00	2,647,214 51
May	3,585,596 25	31,891 00	3,617,487 25
June	2,213,189 86	21,090 00	2,234,279 86
July	4,522,599 61	30,366 00	4,534,559 38
August	4,385,635 38	148,925 00	4,719,574 69
September	3,673,485 69	46,089 00	3,797,614 07
October	3,765,012 07	32,602 00	3,797,614 07
November	4,868,701 53	100,800 00	4,569,201 53
December	4,378,352 93	184,347 00	4,562,699 93
Total	$41,763,456 07	$798,305 00	$42,561,761 07

The following statement shows the amount and destination of the shipments the past three years:

To—	1860.	1861.	1862.
New York	$35,661,200 37	$32,628,010 00	$26,194,034 93
New Orleans	57,795 93	.....	.....
England	2,672,936 20	4,061,779 46	12,950,139 61
China	3,374,680 27	3,541,279 17	2,660,754 29
Japan	94,200 00	60,220 00	17,916 00
Manila	75,659 94	9,000 00	35,651 64
Panama	300,819 00	349,769 17	434,507 79
Hawaiian Islands	40,679 57	7,700 00	3,000 00
Mexico	19,400 00	7,100 00	5,000 00
Other countries	28,245 00	11,900 00	280,756 81
Total	$42,325,916 28	$40,676,758 40	$42,561,761 07

TOTAL RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS IN THREE YEARS.

	1860.	1861.	1862.
Interior receipts	$45,211,693	$41,689,077	$42,539,799
Imports, foreign	1,809,961	1,702,683	1,904,084
North coast	.....	.....	4,931,570
Total	$47,020,754	$43,391,760	$49,375,462
Exports	42,325,916	40,676,758	42,561,761
Leaving	$4,694,838	$2,715,002	$6,813,701

THE STOCK OF GOLD IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE ABSURDITY OF CERTAIN STATEMENTS MADE.

THE extraordinary difficulties that beset the currency at this time, and the high apparent premium borne by gold, but which in reality only marks the depreciation of the paper money, excites general attention, and the "price of gold" is matter of daily interest to all. A large number of persons, including many legislators, really suppose that gold is at a premium, and motions are gravely made in Congress to prohibit, by some enactment, the "speculation in gold," thus preventing banks from lending on it, or brokers from dealing in it. The fact is, however, that gold is of less value than other commodities, and the proof is that it leaves the country by millions weekly. It is more profitable to ship gold than other commodities, because it is relatively cheaper. Whereas, if there was really a speculative demand for the article it would be imported under that demand. That many individuals prefer to hold gold in view of the circumstances of the country to other articles, is no doubt true, and the little demand thus occasioned for the metals check to some extent their outward flow. In California, where the government "greenbacks" are a legal tender equally with other ports of the Union, they have never been currency, but are quoted at a discount for gold. At the latest dates they were 65 cents to the dollar, and gold comes in a diminishing stream to the Atlantic States. Connected with this condition of the country is the probable supply of the metals in the country, and various estimates in regard to it—some of a ludicrously exaggerated character, are circulated by parties who should know better. We have now one before us in a broker's weekly circular of February 28, which makes the gold production of the United States since the discovery of California, $1,000,000,000, and estimates the quantity now in the country at $786,983,923. A broker's gratuitous circular is by no means the most reliable data on which to found a conviction, since the publishers have ever varying interests to serve. The statement in question has, however, in the last few months found the light through some of the city papers, and has been reproduced throughout the country, until adopted in the circular alluded to. It was forwarded to this magazine some two years since, and after exciting a smile was consigned to "barrels of other Balaam." A few months since it appeared a little altered in a certain financial magazine, and thence was taken into some one of the morning papers. The fundamental error of the author was in undertaking to guess how much gold is dug in California, in perfect disregard of all official data. Thus, the exports of gold from California and the receipts at the mint indicate very nearly the production. "But," said our correspondent, "Messrs. HUSSEY, BOND & HALE, of San Francisco, in their circular, state that the amount carried home by passengers, and amount retained in California for currency and for use in the arts, is 75 per cent of the quantity exported by manifest." Now, Messrs. HUSSEY, BOND & HALE have not been in business for ten years, and the state of affairs referred to by them was in the early times, when, there being no mint or assay office in California, the dust and nuggets were carried in little leather bags and used as currency, or carried home to be sold in Wall-street by weight. If the guess of those gentleman was right at that time, it had no relation to what took place years after. In

1854 a mint was established at San Francisco, where all the gold found its way to be assayed and its value determined. From that time to the present California has shipped $410,096,758 of gold, of which $327,769,016 came to the Atlantic States, and is accounted for in the official returns. Here is an error of nearly $600,000,000 in the statement to which we allude, without mentioning others equally apparent. The broker's circular, however, makes one error more than the original statement: it gives the gold production of the United States for 1862 at $75,000,000; but no mention is made of $63,000,000 exported from New York and Boston per custom-house returns, nor of the many millions carried to Canada by express companies. To suppose that $600,000,000 of gold have been dug out of the ground and retained in the shape of dust by miners not over rich, instead of sending it to the mint where it would be recorded, is to suppose a folly; and not less erroneous is it to estimate the gold product of California, exported to foreign countries, as gold in the United States.

The real amount of the precious metals in the country may be approximated from official returns pretty nearly. In the colonies originally there were no precious metals, except the small quantities brought by the settlers. Gradually they earned some Spanish coin by trade, but very little, since the country could not afford it, but used paper. As they became richer the coin increased, and in 1821 Mr. GALLATIN and other authorities estimated the quantity in the country at $37,000,000. Soon after that date the mines of Virginia and Georgia began to yield small sums, all of which sought the mints, and branch mints were established to receive it. In February, 1848, California gold was discovered, and began to yield in 1849, and in 1834 and 1837 the standard was altered to induce greater imports of gold into the country. Up to 1849 the value of the metals in the country was $122,599,562, and up to 1862, it was $243,010,123, as will be seen by the following statement:

On hand in 1821			$37,000,000
Import, 1821 to 1849	$252,241,067		
Export, 1821 to 1849	180,452,701		
Net import		$71,788,356	
United States mines 1821 to 1849		13,811,206	
			85,599,562
On hand 1849			$122,599,562
United States mines 1849 to 1862		$523,070,040	
Import, 1849 to 1862	$135,325,508		
Export, 1849 to 1862	537,984,987	402,659,479	120,410,561
On hand 1862			$243,010,123

Now it is to be borne in mind that this is the whole supply of all the precious metals from imports and mines, with the exception of such sums as come unreported into the country in the pockets of individuals.

That there is much foreign coin brought into the country is proved in the quantities that are exported. In the month of January last, of over 4,000,000 exported, there was 900,000 of foreign coins. A portion of this must have been brought by individuals. But there are great numbers of

persons who leave the country every year, and carry away coin. The balance, therefore, cannot be determined. Taking then the supply from mines and imports up to 1862, at $243,010,123, we can easily estimate the amount of coin there is in the country at the present time. To reach a correct conclusion, however, we must remember that the precious metals we possess aredivided into, 1st, currency; 2d, amount held by banks; 3d, the quantity wrought up in the arts for the whole Union. The last mentioned quantity can only be approximated, but the internal tax law will throw some light on the amount of plate held, which of late years has become large. The census for 1860 gave the value of articles produced from the precious metals at $19,554,580 per annum. If the material is one-half the value, the requirement for that purpose would be $10,000,000 per annum. It is not estimated, however, that the quantity is more than $2,500,000 average since 1821, which would give $100,000,000 wrought up in the arts, silverware, goldware, watches, jewelry, gold leaf, &c., &c. There has been, on the other hand, a considerable importation of plate, watches, jewelry, &c., a good deal of which, becoming old fashioned, has been sent to the mint, or used over by jewelers, &c. The value imported is about $2,000,000 per annum, and the material for forty years may have furnished $20,000,000 for new works; a considerable quantity also being brought in by emigrants, it may be assumed that these two items have furnished as much as has been wrought up in the arts. The $243,010,123 will then remain as the sum of the currency in 1862. That amount will embrace all denominations of gold and silver coin in the banks North and South, and in circulation. If we have recourse to the official mint returns, we shall discover that a considerable portion of the amount is silver fractions. Under the law of 1852, which reduced the silver in the fraction six per cent in order to keep them in the country, the silver coinage has been as follows:

	Pieces.	Value.
One dollar	$1,839,180	$1,839,180
One-half dollar	64,589,138	32,294,569
One-quarter dollar	68,549,680	17,137,420
Ten cents	48,031,010	4,803,101
Five cents	57,865,520	2,893,276
Three cents	41,957,900	1,258,737
		$60,226,283

This large sum being coined in such a manner as to make it more valuable for circulation than for any other purpose, has formed the small currency of the country. If deducted from the $243,000,000, there remains $183,000,000 of gold coin; of this amount, $40,000,000 is in pieces of $3, $2½, and $1, the last being one-half the whole. . There was then $140,000,000 of gold of $5 and upwards; of this amount, $90,000,000 was held by the banks, $37,000,000 at the South, and $53,000,000 at the North. The whole circulation was as follows:

	South.	North.	Total.
Silver curreney	$20,000,000	$40,226,283	$60,226,283
Small gold currency	13,000,000	27,000,000	40,000,000
In banks	37,000,000	53,000,000	90,000,000
In circulation	18,000,000	35,000,000	53,000,000
Total, 1862	$88,000,000	$155,226,280	$243,226,283

During the past year there has been received from California $24,882,846, and imported $1,500,000, making $26,282,846. There has been exported from Boston, New York, &c., $66,000,000, which reduced the stock at the North to $115,000,000, and the banks now hold $60,000,000. A great deal of gold went South to buy cotton, &c., when the armies advanced into Kentucky and Tennessee, and the silver has very much of it gone to Canada by express. The following statement shows the amount of gold and silver coins that has thus and in various other ways disappeared:

Stock of coin at the North	$155,226,280
Less excess of exports	40,000,000
	$115,226,280
Held by banks of the North	60,000,000
Balance.....	$55,226,280

This balance, as stated above, is composed of the silver and small gold coin that has disappeared.

Thus, it will be seen, that the amount of the metals in the shape of coin in the country cannot be large. As is well known, much of this amount is now held by private persons who are timid in relation to the future, and by many who think it the best investment. It is, however, evident that, as an investment, it gives no profit except as against creditors. If a person has a mortgage coming due, and the validity of the "greenbacks" as a legal tender is unquestionable, then to hold gold until it is necessary to make the payment, and at that time and for that purpose turning it into paper, would most likely be profitable. But simply to hold gold until the paper runs its course and dies out, (if it ever does,) will give no other profit than that which may arise from buying property at the very low rates which would probably rule if the currency collapses. While, on the other hand, should the war cease, and the legal tender notes be in any way withdrawn from circulation, of course the remaining notes would also gradually approximate in value to gold. Hence the holders of the precious metals, as an investment, are in any event not likely to find it very profitable—if the currency collapses, or if it is withdrawn, they in either case lose the premium they have paid.

The stock of plate that may be returned by the tax gatherers, will form an item of curious interest. It will indicate how much wealth has been so absorbed in the last thirty years. In 1837, Daniel Webster, in his great speech upon the Sub-Treasury bill, denied that plate was held to any extent at the East—"a few porringers and pap spoons, a few tankards for church service, would constitute all." This is not now the case, but the number of families which hold many thousand ounces has become large. Ostentation has made progress with wealth, and presentation plate for public services and private virtues, with the family nuptial offerings, have absorbed large amounts of the metals, which, in a day of national adversity, may again find their way into circulation, like the Apostles wrought in silver, (of the English Cathedral,) that Cromwell ordered amid the throes of revolution to be melted down and "sent about doing good."

THE NEW QUARANTINE BILL.

It has been our good fortune to learn from reliable sources the chief features of the Hon. H. C. Murphy's *New Quarantine Bill*, now before the Senate Committee.

Its name is indicative of its quality; and this is as it should be, for the antiquated laws, with their practical interpretations for the Port of New York, have long since ceased to be within the scope of reform.

Mr. Murphy's Bill is complete. All the old laws on the subject have been consumed—thoroughly digested and incoporated into a new code which gives expression to the highest degree of advancement in this branch of sanitary reform.

Instead of detaining vessels in a filthy or infected state "for observation," the new bill provides for their immediate purification and free pratique; instead of detaining persons who have contracted, or who have been exposed to infectious diseases, it provides for their immediate removal,—all *well* persons to have their freedom, and all sick persons to be immediately removed from the vicinity of the material which has caused their illness, to appropriate hospitals. Instead of storing cargoes at the Atlantic Docks, or other store houses dangerous on this account to the public health, the new Bill provides for the construction of warehouses and wet docks on Old Orchard Shoals, exclusively for quarantine purposes. Instead of leaving it to the "discretion" of the health officer to quarantine any vessel, any body, or anything for any length of time, the new Bill specifies the conditions of quarantine and requires immediate dispatch in all its departments. Instead of leaving it to the discretion of the health officer to quarantine any sick person—no matter as to the disease,—it particularly specifies that yellow fever, cholera, typhus fever and small pox are the only diseases that shall be subject to quarantine.

Instead of leaving lighterage, stevedorage, &c., &c., to be monopolized by the health officer, and charged for "according to his discretion," the new Bill gives the merchant the option of doing his own lighterage, stevedorage, &c.; and of that which is done by the health officer, the bill provides that the wages shall be determined by the commissioners of quarantine. Instead of allowing an annual income of from twenty-five thousand to one hundred thousand dollars to the health officer, "according to his discretion" in establishing regulations, in addition to the boarding fees fixed by law, the new Bill fixes the health officer's salary at ten thousand dollars a year, and provides that all fees and allowances hitherto exacted shall be fixed by the commissioners of quarantine, and be paid to the chamberlain of New York, to constitute a fund for Quarantine purposes.

The new Bill also provides for the sale of all the lands now pertaining to the Marine Hospital, and to a quarantine station on Staten Island; that the moneys accruing therefrom be used for the erection of warehouses and other appurtenances on Old Orchard Shoals, and the building of a floating hospital for the care of yellow fever; the quarantine anchorage and the anchorage of the Floating Hospital, during the summer season, hereafter to be Raritan Bay, at such a distance and direction from the shore, from the warehouses and from each other, as to endanger no one;

the quarantine commissioners, to continue as at present, and to be the custodians of the fund created by this law for quarantine purposes.

Such are, in brief, the chief features of this important Bill. We deem it not only one of the most important, but one of the most commendable measures that has been before the legislature for many years. The most striking feature of the bill, and probably that which will encounter some opposition, is the erection of warehouses and wet docks on Old Orchard Shoals. Such an undertaking necessarily involves a large outlay. But when merchants consider the constant outlay to which they are subjected year after year, by the detention of their vessels for months at a time, according to the system hitherto practiced, we are constrained to believe that the structures contemplated in this Bill of the Hon. Mr. MURPHY would be remunerative to the merchants of New York, even if built by a joint stock company. According to a survey made a few years ago under the auspices of the commissioners for the removal of Quarantine, four acres of foundation can be prepared on Old Orchard Shoals for $133,000, or about one-third of the amount which can probably be realised by the sale of lands and property now belonging to or being appropriated for quarantine purposes. Besides, the merchants of New York hardly need be reminded that the great West India docks and warehouses of the Thames were erected by a joint stock company at an expense of a million and a half pounds sterling, and were yet remunerative. Quarantine warehouses and wet docks for the use of merchants on Old Orchard Shoals, for all needful quarantine purposes, can doubtless be erected for less than one-third the cost of the works on the Thames, and from funds mostly to be provided by the sale of property already appropriated by the State.

FRENCH CONVICTS.

The position of convicts in France at present occupies the attention of the government. According to the last official accounts, there are 7,690 convicts under sentence to hard labor. Of these, 1,964 are sentenced to hard labor for life; 3,070 to from five to ten years; 2,259 to from eleven to twenty years; 282 to from twenty-one to thirty years; 41 to from thirty-one to forty years; and 9 to from fifty-one years and upwards. Four thousand seven hundred and fifty were convicted of robbery, 1,027 of murder, 452 of attacks on women, 233 of incendiarism, 168 of assassination, 162 of cutting and maiming, 150 of forgery, 140 of coining, 24 of fraudulent bankruptcy, and 26 of parricide. The half of these convicts are formed of men from twenty to forty years of age. There are 123 young men of from sixteen to twenty years of age, and 270 old men above sixty. The agricultural districts supply more than half of the convicts. We find 4,595 born in the country, 2,452 born in towns, and 645 foreigners. Of the convicts 3,992 can neither read nor write; 91 alone have received superior primary instruction. Agricultural laborers and gardeners form about a sixth of the convicts. There are 1,078 navvies, 467 masons, 345 weavers, 245 domestic servants, 175 tailors, and 184 blacksmiths and locksmiths.

THE ATLANTIC CABLE AND ITS PROPOSED WESTERN TERMINUS IN NEWFOUNDLAND.

THE great question of an Atlantic electric cable appears to be again revived, and the difficulties of connecting the old and new world by its means appear once more in a fair way of being grappled with. In our January number the report of Mr. HOSKYN, R. N., supplied some highly important information as to there being more than one easy road to the bed of the ocean, along with the opinion of this officer on the facility with which either might be followed, and the bugbear of the precipitous change of depth was exploded. In the opinion of the editor of the London *Nautical Magazine*, it was shown by him that about the parallel of Galway there is more even ground, speaking generally, than further south. And therefore that such a locality was more favorable for an electric cable.

While Mr. HOSKYN was at work on the West of Ireland, adding important soundings to his chart, Captain ORLEBAR, R. N., was busy on the eastern coast of Newfoundland, doing the same there, and has selected a favorable site of a western terminus for an electric cable at a place called New Perlican, in Trinity Bay. The *Nautical Magazine*, with the permission of Admiral WASHINGTON, the Hydrographer to the Admiralty, gives the result of Captain ORLEBAR'S examination of the bays of Trinity and Conception, and also a reduced copy of his surveys of New Perlican, the position of all these places being shown on the small general outline of Newfoundland accompanying them.

That the failure of the first cable would be followed by another attempt, the importance of the object in view plainly foretold. Nor if this in prospect should fail, do we despair even of another. But we trust that many of the mistakes made in the detail of the last will disappear in this—and that a favorable *time* will be found for carrying out this very important undertaking.

We publish, therefore, at this time the report of Captain ORLEBAR, with the remarks of Mr. LEEMING; and, as a preliminary introduction, preface them with the following brief view of the meeting which took place in London on the subject of the cable, on the 12th of December:

On December 12th an extraordinary general meeting of the proprietors in this company was held at the London Tavern, for the purpose of receiving a statement from the directors, and considering a proposition for the issue of £500,000 new capital, in preferential shares of £5 each, bearing eight per cent interest, guaranteed, in case of success, by the British Government; also, to consider the further proposition, that "any further profits—which, to a large extent, are, upon careful calculation, confidently anticipated, shall be appropriated in the first instance to paying a dividend of four per cent on the old capital, and beyond that amount to an equal division between the old and new shareholders, and the formation of a reserve fund." The Right Hon. JAMES STUART WORTLEY took the chair.

The Chairman said he had never had the honor of meeting the shareholders so hopefully as on the present occasion. That hopeful state was derived principally from the great revival of interest on that subject, and the increased disposition of the public as well as among the shareholders to en-

courage the directors in their endeavors to complete that great and important work. All their privileges remained intact and perfect in their possession. From inquiries they had made the directors had ascertained that the place they had chosen in Newfoundland for the landing of the cable was the best that could be found, and no other company could obtain a better landing place. They had also greatly improved in the science of telegraphy. The danger to be apprehended to the cable was not from deep water, but from the shallow water. The company had now discovered a very smooth bed for laying the cable down, and had selected it for that purpose. The right honorable gentleman then read extracts of a letter from Sir WILLIAM FAIRBAIRN, who stated that he had every confidence in the success of the enterprise, provided the insulation was complete. He then stated that the gutta percha, as manufactured by GLASS, ELLIOTT & Co., was so impervious to water, that, under a pressure of 20,000 tons to the square inch, there was a perforation of only 0.40. The directors asked the government to survey the coast of Ireland for some miles from Valencia Bay, and they, with great consideration, granted their request. The report from that survey was that they had discovered a better and easier practicable route—a bed all that would be desired for laying a cable, in which a dip of 6 feet in 100 was the lowest, and a dip of 19 feet in 100 the greatest incline, and there were no sudden precipitous descents. The Chairman, after referring to the addition of Mr. WILLIAM BROWN, of Liverpool; Mr. CROPPER, of the Magnetic Telegraph Company; Mr. BIDDER, and the Chairman of the International Electric Telegraph Company, and others, to the directorship, concluded by referring to various other circumstances of encouragement, and moved the first resolution, authorising the directors to issue shares of £5 each, £1 payable as deposit.

Mr. C. M. SAMPSON seconded the motion, which was agreed to.

After the usual vote of thanks to the Chairman, the meeting separated.

Such was the manner in which the project was received. We now append the reports and join in good wishes for the success of the enterprise:

SOUNDING OF TRINITY AND CONCEPTION BAYS, NEWFOUNDLAND.

Charlotte Town, Prince Edward Island,
November 24th, 1862.

SIR: Herewith you will receive the charts containing the soundings taken in Trinity and Conception bays, and also eastward of St. John to the meridian of 50° W. A dotted red line indicates the route I consider best adapted for the Atlantic telegraph cable, and for which I beg to submit the following reasons:

1. You will observe that it is only the most northern line of offshore soundings that gives muddy bottom, and that this leads right into the mouth of Trinity Bay. The soundings further south are more irregular, less deep, and give stones, rock, and sand. At the entrance of Conception Bay the soundings have the same character, giving fifty fathoms less depth than Trinity Bay.

2. Also in Trinity Bay a channel with muddy bottom five miles wide and more than 130 fathoms deep can be carried from the offing more than forty-five miles up the bay to New Perlican, where it approaches within a mile of the south shore.

3. The nature of the bottom was everywhere noted, and specimens of it have been prepared for the microscope by Mr. T. J. LEEMING. The exam-

ination of these specimens, and of the rocks on the shore of Trinity and Conception bays, which are of the silurian system, leads me to suppose that there is nothing on the shores, or at the bottom, likely to impair the working of the telegraph cable. On this subject I enclose a memorandum by Mr. T. J. LEEMING, naturalist.

4. Trinity Bay is twenty miles wide at the entrance, and is well lighted by Cape Bonavista and Catalina Green Island lights on the north side, and Baccalieu Island light on the south. Icebergs generally ground on the shoal banks off Catalina and Cape Bonavista, and even those that enter the bays are most frequently driven over to the north side.

5. In Fitters Cove, New Perlican, which is too exposed for vessels to anchor, the bottom is sand, with scattered rounded stones, and at its head there is a beach of fine sand, on which the telegraph cable, if protected by a sheath of iron near the land-wash, might be safely landed. It would have to traverse for half a mile a rocky slope, having a depth of thirty fathoms, decreasing to eleven fathoms; but it appears tolerably even, and is too far within the bay to be visited by icebergs, or disturbed by the ocean swell.

6. On the northern side of this bay the soundings are more irregular, and the bottom rocky, whilst there is more ocean swell and more danger from icebergs.

7. For these reasons I think the western terminus of the ocean telegraph cable should be at New Perlican, and on that account I have prepared and transmitted herewith a plan of New Perlican on the scale of four inches to the sea mile. I have, &c.,

JOHN ORLEBAR,
Captain in charge of the Newfoundland Survey.

Admiral WASHINGTON, *Hydrographer, Admiralty.*

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS DURING THE SOUNDING OF TRINITY AND CONCEPTION BAYS, NEWFOUNDLAND, BY MR. T. J. LEEMING, NATURALIST, ETC.

Orders having been received on the 20th June to sound Trinity and Conception Bays, the steamer *M. Stevenson* proceeded at once to the scene of operations, and commenced sounding on the 3d of July, running the first line from Baccalieu Island to Catalina Harbor. The coast from St. John to St. Francis is very bold and rocky, especially near St. John, where the rocks are of great elevation and steeply scarped, so that, with the exception of a few sheltered bays and coves, landing is impracticable, the rocks, for the most part of the Grauwacke system, appearing of a coarse conglomerate, varying in texture from that of a sandstone to a concrete gravel.

At Flat Rock Point at Torbay the different textures appear in alternating beds with an inclination of about 10° towards the North. At Cape St. Francis the rocks are slaty, with quartz and a small quantity of copper pyrites. The shores of Trinity Bay, as far as the survey extends, are also very abrupt. The Sugar Loaf, on the South side, consists of conglomerate, with quartz veins rising sheer from the water's edge to the height of 415 feet. Bonaventure Head, on the opposite side of the bay, in like manner rises to 467 feet. Some of the other elevations taken (barometrically) as follows:—Breakheart Point, 326 feet; Hants Harbor Hill, 123 feet; Mount Misery, at New Perlican, 324 feet; Horse Chops, 263 feet. Towards Catalina and Cape Bonavista the shore is much lower, Cape Bonavista at the lighthouse being about 150 feet.

The geological character of the rocks, as far as opportunity for examination offered, was as follows:—At Bonavista, alternating layers of sandstone and concrete gravel at an inclination of 40° to N.N.W. At Catalina Harbor the rocks are slate, with a slight inclination varying from 3° to 15° towards the sea; on the N.E. side of the harbor is abundance of cubical iron pyrites, called locally "Catalina Spar." The other side of the bay is mostly of conglomerate, and towards New Perlican slates appear.

The soundings, as indicated by the chart, gave mud for the middle of the bay, while the south side is more rocky and gravelly. The mud appears to be of uniform character throughout; when dry, scarcely distinguishable, but when first taken up, that towards Trinity Harbor, and thence about half way across, is rather of a higher color, while generally it is black or dark green. When washed in nitric acid and submitted to the microscope, the same appearance is everywhere presented, a considerable variety of siliceous organisms, among which will be found *coscinodiscus cocconema, gallionella, cocconeius, navicula spicule, &c.* Several washed portions have been in glass, which together will be found to contain all the species that have as yet been noticed in these soundings.

The mud of Conception Bay is identical in character, but not nearly so plentiful. Near Salmon Cove a cast of the lead brought up several scales having the appearance, as to metallic lustre and color, of gold; but, owing to the strong wind blowing at the time, the particles were scattered. One small scale was secured under glass and is sent along with the sounding. The shores of Conception Bay are not nearly so wild as those of Trinity.

With the exception of the extreme North of the bay about Split Point, which is of considerable elevation, the face of the rock and the natural fissures being inclined about 15° from the perpendicular, the vegetation extends nearly to the water; the greatest elevation being about Portugal Cove and towards the head of the bay. The Lookout at Portugal Cove rises to the height of 530 feet. Among the other elevations taken were Island Cove Head, 106 feet; Western Bay Head, 185 feet; Blowmedown, 182 feet; Spectacle Hill, at Cupid Cove, 308 feet; Brigus Lookout, 357 feet. At Spectacle Hill the rocks are clay slate, variegated with ferruginous layers, having a dip of about 36° towards N.W.; the direction of the natural cleavage running N.E.

At Blowmedown the slate is very fissile, and a vein of coarsely grained quartz, about eighteen inches thick, traverses the station in a N.E. and S.W. direction. Bell Island is an elevated deposit, alternating strata of flag and slaty rock, of a nearly uniform elevation, save where worn into valleys of denudation; cliffs worn nearly, and in some places beyond the perpendicular by the action of the sea; beaches of slaty and conglomerate shingle at Lance Cove and Grand Beach. It has the character of being the most fertile land in Newfoundland: Kelly Island is nearly identical in character.

The summer was unusually late this year. On the morning of the 17th June was a perfect snowstorm from the N.E., lasting from six a.m. till noon. The ice was last seen in Conception Bay on the 21st of August. A large berg was afterwards seen off St. John, October 2d; its position at 10. 30. m. a.m. was about 47° 27′ N. and 52° 15′ W. There had been a fall of snow the day before.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

RISE IN GOLD—FINANCIAL POLICY—CHEAP GOLD—EXPORTS OF—LENDING ON—FLUCTUATION—EXCHANGE—COURSE OF CONGRESS—WANT OF TAXES—STOCK SPECULATIONS—AGGREGATE RISE—NEW YORK CENTRAL—STOCKS FROM EUROPE—GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA—COST OF BILLS—RATES OF EXCHANGE—FLUCTUATION—EFFECT ON BUSINESS—SUPREME COURT—LEGAL TENDER—GOLD MOVEMENT—MEDIATION—SPECIE TO CANADA—BANK CIRCULATION—CITY NOTES AT A PREMIUM—UNITED STATES STOCKS—EFFECT OF PAPER UPON IMPORTS—COST OF IMPORTS—VALUE OF FOR JANUARY—DUTIES AVERAGE—EXPORTS OF PRODUCE—CURRENCY VALUE—FREIGHTS AT LEGHORN.

THE marked feature in the business of the past month has been the continued rise in gold, which culminated at the close of January in a price of 60¾ premium for paper, or 62⅛ cents per paper dollar. This rapid rise from 33⅜ premium for gold January 1st, was partly due to the legitimate effects of paper money, and partly to the speculative action which the perilous condition of the federal finances induced. If that may be called speculation where individuals protect themselves from what they regard as an inevitable evil by avoiding the dangerous element. To give paper which is known to be of falling value, for articles of a more fixed value, is a matter of prudence and cannot be called speculation. It is no doubt the case that the desire to get rid of paper hastens its decline, but that is not the fault of the holder, it is the error of the government, which, against all the lights of experience, insists upon a course of conduct which involves inevitable ruin. When a ship is driving upon the rocks, ordering the passengers to go to sleep, or hanging him who suggests a change of course, will not prevent the wreck. It is the law of nature for persons to protect themselves from an approaching evil. The idea is indulged that "speculation," as it is called, tends to make specie dear. The fact is, however, that paper makes it *too cheap*, so cheap that it will not remain in the country, but leaves at the rate of $2,000,000 a week, for the simple reason that it is the best remittance out of the country. In the last week in January gold was quoted at 60¾ premium, and yet in that week $1,331,027 was shipped to Europe. Why should that be the case if the paper has not depreciated and gold is really at a premium? Why should gold go to London, where it is not in demand, from New York, where it is alleged to have a high speculative value? Why should the California supplies cease coming to New York where they command such a "premium," and go to London where they command none? There is only one reply to all those questions, and it is that when the bankers are asked for exchange, they can find no commodity so cheap as gold to ship and draw against. The government and people have rejected the use of the metals as a currency. It has become a commodity, and the little demand there is for that article to be used in the arts is far below the existing supply, and it goes where it is more wanted. The effect of speculation, if it really existed, would be to raise the value of gold, and by so doing, keep more of it in the country, and the banks could not do a greater service than to promote such a speculation by lending on it. Nevertheless, Mr. HARRISON, in the House of Representatives, with inconceivable fatuity on the part of a National Legislator, introduced a resolution January 28, which was adopted, that "the Committee on Ways and

Means be instructed to inquire into the expediency of an act prohibiting banks and individuals from receiving deposits of gold to secure the payment of money borrowed; that they inquire whether such an act will not prevent the speculation in gold now going on, and thereby protect the government and people from the evils of such speculation; and that the committee have leave to report by bill or otherwise."

This should have been called "a resolution to drive every dollar of specie out of the country, by interfering with the right of property in it." It is of a piece with the action of the Secretary of the Treasury in "requesting" the brokers not to deal in gold. Suppose it were desirable to prevent the export of any other article, cotton for instance, and to effect that object the government should exert itself to stop persons from dealing in it, the banks and individuals from lending on it, and denounce those who bought it as disloyal. Would the supply of cotton under such circumstances increase? Yet this is the course taken by the government to make gold plenty!

These efforts had of course no effect. After a steady rise of 27 per cent in the premium on gold during the month of January, the rate fluctuated ominously, and by so doing, unsettled all business. Prices of all descriptions of goods which had risen rapidly with the price of exchange came to a pause and retrograded. The rise during January had impelled an active movement in most descriptions of goods. Dry goods in particular underwent an extensive advance, the rapidity of which, as well as that in gold, brought on reaction, the more so that there were signs in Congress of a change of policy on the part of the government. The financial bill alluded to in our last, passed the House, virtually authorizing $700,000,000 more paper currency, of which $400,000,000 was to bear interest and be converted into legal tender.

The action of the Senate in opposition to this to some extent caused a pause in speculation, and for a time caused reaction in prices; but as the session drew to a close without any indications of a disposition to substitute taxes for paper money, and accompanied by a pertinacious attempt to push through the banking bill, fraught with unmixed evil, confidence did not revive, but the disposition to part with government paper for any description of tangible property became more marked. The Banking bill was finally passed in the House, February 20, by a vote of 75 to 73 ordering the previous question to cut off debate, and then passed, 77 to 64. The bill itself is merely a monument of legislative folly. It provides that any five persons may by buying government stocks lodge them with the government at Washington and receive bills in return to circulate as money. It will be difficult to find persons sufficiently foolish for such an operation. The Secretary r commended it in December, 1861, when United States stocks were at par for gold. Suppose it had then gone into operation, and five persons had bought $100,000 of stock for as much gold, and had received therefor notes, for the circulation of which they may be held responsible by State law. Their position would now be a liability for $100,000, while the stock would only bring 66 cents on the dollar. When the $1,600,000,000 that the government proposes to issue in the next eighteen months shall have been put out, what will be the value of stocks bought now to bank on? The banking interest wisely withdrew opposition from such a scheme. One per cent tax on present circulation inflicts far less loss than the new bank plan promises.

The speculation in the stock market has been carried to an extent which

excites much caution among the brokers and bankers, although the stagnation in general business has induced numbers of people to seek profit in the rise in stocks. The eighteen leading railroad stocks dealt in in the New York market have an aggregate capital of $127,000,000. That capital, at the market prices of February 1, 1862, was $70,000,000, and is now $125,000,000, an advance of $55,000,000, or 80 per cent, while gold advanced 60 per cent. This fact shows the current of speculation. One-fifth of the capital named is New York Central, and it advanced in value $10,000,000, or 50 per cent; but, as measured in gold, its value is now less than last year. This is the case with some other stocks, where the dividends, paid in paper, disappoint the foreign holders. The enhanced value of the stocks, in paper money, has caused a great rise in the apparent loans and deposits of the banks, as well as in the sum of the week's clearings, as will be apparent on inspecting the table of bank returns on another page. It is no doubt the case that stocks continue to come from abroad for realization, and that to remit their proceeds with the least possible expense is a matter of inquiry. Most descriptions of produce have been sought for for that purpose, but the result is not always as favorable as to remit in gold, since the price of commodities quoted in paper disguise the cost of shipment in a manner that results in loss. This is the case with the California trade, where the currency in the market of sale remains in gold, and government paper fluctuates at a discount of 40 @ 45 per cent. It results that when produce, bought here in paper prices, reaches there, to be paid for in specie prices, after the freights are settled for in paper, that loss is often sustained, and with a diminished business less gold is due to the Atlantic States. On the other hand, the inducements to ship gold direct to London are greater. In fact, since the seizure of the Ariel, and the increased charge for war risks, most of the gold has been sent direct to England from California. The bills against such shipments can be sold in this market less than if the gold comes here. Thus, to ship gold to New York, costs freight and primage, 1.575 per cent, paid in gold; marine insurance, 1.500 per cent, war risks, 3.000 per cent, together 4.500 in currency, or allowing for return premiums 3 per cent, making, with freight and primage, 4.575 per cent. To ship direct to London costs 2 per cent freight, 1¼ insurance, or 3¼ per cent, making 1.325 per cent in favor of the direct shipment. But if the gold is shipped from New York to London, the difference will be raised to 2¼ per cent. To send gold to Paris is about 4 cents per ounce better than to send it to London, because the French refiners allow that amount for the copper parted. The cost of bills based on gold from New York is constantly increasing. Thus, if $10,000 in gold bought at par will give a bill at 9¼ per cent, or $4 86 the £, then gold bars at 58 premium, with 1 per cent on the amount for shipping charges, will require 75 per cent, per £. The rate of bills have been as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 3,	146 a 147¼	3.85 a 3.80	56 a 56¼	56 a 56¼	49¼ a 49¼	98 a 98¼
" 10,	149 a 152	3.72½ a 3.67½	56 a 58	57½ a 58½	50¼ a 51¼	99 a 100
" 17,	160 a 162	3.52½ a 3.45	60½ a 61½	61 a 62½	54 a 55½	108 a 110
" 24,	162½ a 163	3.50 a 3.45	61 a 61½	61½ a 62	54 a 54¾	107 a 108½
" 31,	171 a 177	3.32 a 3.15	65½ a 66½	65 a 67	57 a 58¾	114 a 117
Feb. 7,	169 a 173	3.30 a 3.25	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	57 a 57¾	114 a 116
" 14,	170 a 171	3.32 a 3.27	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	56¾ a 57½	113½ a 114½
" 21,	171 a 179½	2.20 a 3.12	67 a 68½	65 a 68½	59 a 60½	113½ a 119½

The fluctuation in these figures is very serious to all interests, as well the banks and importers as the shippers of produce. The price of gold, January 1st, was 133¾, and on the 31st, 160¾—the highest point. The price rose steadily until the rumors as to the intention of the Senate caused a fall to 52½, followed by a sudden reaction to 64. The price of bills followed the rise in gold, but with extreme caution on the part of drawers, who could name no rates until they had covered themselves with gold or commercial bills. On the 31st the rates reached 177, or $7 85 per £. February 2d, on the fall of gold, sales were made at 169, or $7 50 per £ for the Arabia, which carried $286,000 in gold. Subsequently the rates rose with the reaction in gold, and in the last week there were rumors that the Supreme Court of New York, in the case of Judge ROOSEVELT, had decided against the constitutionality of "greenbacks" as a legal tender. The demand from importers is good for bills, since they seek to cover invoices on the arrival of the merchandise.

The pecie movement is as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1861.		1862.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold.
January 3.	.....	442,147	.....	681,448	35,954,550	34¼ a 34¾
" 10.	885,928	1,035,025	1,277,788	726,746	36,770,746	34 a 39
" 17.	.....	547,703	.....	1,380,247	37,581,465	40 a 49
" 24.	627,767	322,918	678,841	780,816	38,549,794	47 a 50¾
" 31.	.....	310,484	.....	1,331,027	38,894,840	48¾ a 60¼
February 7.	854,000	976,235	801,860	1,277,000	38,243,839	57½ a 57½
" 14.	614,146	1,156,154	359,978	1,152,846	38,426,460	53½ a 53½
" 21.	759,247	934,512	.....	520,017	37,981,310	54 a 64
Total....	3,721,083	5,525,178	3,618,466	7,850,147	.....	

In the last week there was an increase in the gold demand, growing out of fears in relation to foreign action, caused by the reply of Mr. SEWARD to the French minister in relation to mediation. This outward current of specie does not embrace the shipments from Boston nor the quantities that go to Canada. Every new fall in the value of the paper currency gave a new impulse to the outward current of the metals, while the amount of gold in the banks with difficulty sustained itself, notwithstanding the disposition in many quarters to hold gold rather than other articles against the falling value of paper. The attempt to tax bank capital in order to drive in the circulation of banks, under the impression that it will leave more room for government paper, induced the banks to call in their circulation to some extent, as will be seen in the bank tables elsewhere. The banks are, however, exposed to another danger, since, under the impression that the validity of the legal tender character of the government notes cannot be sustained, there has been a disposition to hold the city bank notes for ultimate payment in specie under the State laws. The city banks indeed report nearly five times as much specie on hand as circulation outstanding, but a large portion of this specie does not belong to the banks. New York city bank notes were 103 @ 104, and many of the banks exchanged the notes they had on hand of other institutions for their own thus held by others, effecting a great reduction.

The speculative action in stocks did not reach the government securities, notwithstanding that the interest on them is payable in gold. The rates were as follows:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	6 p. c. certif. 1 year.	Gold.	August demand notes.
January 3,...	96¼	98	88¼	102¼	96¼	34¼ a 34⅝	29
" 10,...	97⅛	98	90	103	97	37⅛ a 38	35
" 17,...	91⅛	91⅛	88¼	101	95	49 a 46¼	43
" 24,...	95	96	90	102	96	47 a 48¼	44⅛
" 31,...	92¼	94	86	101¼	94	55 a 60⅛	53
February 7,...	92	93⅛	85¼	102	94	57¼ a 57½	55
" 14,...	94	96	87½	102½	96	53¼ a 53½	51
" 21,...	96¼	97⅛	91½	103¼	95	53¼ a 64	62

The operation of the paper currency seems so have the effect of encouraging imports and discouraging exports, and at the same time of bringing all business more upon a cash basis. As the banker cannot give time upon his bill where the cost of covering it varies so rapidly, so neither can the importer give credit upon goods, the cost of importing which, as in January, may vary 40 @ 50 per cent per month. To sell goods on time for money which suffers such an enormous change in value, is simply to gamble. Nevertheless, that the prices of goods do rise so as to cover the cost of importation, is proved in the continued increase in the imports. Those for November were $10,300,000; for December, $13,072,000, and for January, $15,739,000, as follows:

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Entered for Consumption.	Entered for Warehouse.	Total.
January.....	$101,906	$2,413,649	$8,741,227	$4,482,794	$15,739,676
January, 1862..	163,658	2,552,060	6,763,396	3,141,725	12,620,897

The duties paid in the month of January were $4,127,906, an average of 35.51 per cent. Last year the average was 30 per cent, and in 1861, 19¼ per cent. If, however, we add to the average duty the cost of specie and of exchange for the first and last week of January, the difference will be as follows, per $1,000: First week, duty $350; specie for duty, $117; cost of exchange over par, $335—total, $822, or 82¼ per cent. In the last week the duty was $350; specie for duty, $210; cost of bill over par, $60—together, $1,160, or 116 per cent, an increase of 34 per cent in cost of importations. The cost is fixed on the arrival of the goods by the immediate purchase of the custom notes and exchange. This works well while the currency is depreciating, but not so well if by any means it should appreciate. The exports of the port have been as follows:

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
January.....	$4,624,574	$73,111	$668,275	$14 829,398	$19,695,351
January, 1862..	2,658,274	27,193	147,893	12,053,477	14,888,437

The exports of domestic produce are apparently $2,700,000 more than last year; but the amount to be realized from it is really but $9,886,000, or $2,100,000 less than last year. It follows that, instead of a balance due the country, the amount is largely the other way, including the specie shipments. The depreciation of the currency gives rise to other complications. Thus, the bark Mary Edson, at Leghorn, from New York, was detained at that port in consequence of being unable to collect her freight money, except at the rate of francs 3.90 to the dollar, that being the amount that the house to which the vessel was consigned claims to be the equivalent of a dollar in American currency. On such a construction the loss would be serious to the vessel.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

SUGAR TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1862.

The following table shows the quantities of sugar consumed in the United States, the quantity per head of the consumers, and the average prices in New York in 1831, 1841, and from 1851 to 1862:

	Imported. tons.	Louisiana. tons.	Total tons.	Pounds per head.	Aver. price. cents.	Maple sugar. tons.†
1831	44,178	35,000	79,178	13½	4	.....
1841	65,601	38,000	103,601	13¼	4½	16,385
1851	201,493	120,331	321,824	30	5½	17,126
1852	196,558	118,659	315,217	29	4⅝	15,000
1853	200,610	172,379	379,989	36¼	5½	13,000
1854	150,854	234,444	385,298	34	5	12,300
1855	192,607	185,145	377,752	31½	6½	14,500
1856	255,292	123,468	378,760	30⅝	8½	14,500
1857	241,765	39,000	280,765	23½	9	17,000
1858	244,758	143,734	388,492	25	6⅝	16,000
1859	239,034	192,150	431,184	26	7	17,000
1860	296,950	118,331	415,281	26½	7¼	19,431
1861	241,420	122,399	363,819	23½	6½	18,000
1862	247,015	235,858	482,873	28	10¼	20,000

The great fluctuation in the sugar market, caused by the failures of the Louisiana sugar crop in 1857, can be traced by this table. The sugar crop in that State in 1853 was very large, and as a consequence, aided by financial pressure, the price fell very low, encouraging consumption while it discouraged planters. In the following year a great decrease was manifest in the crops. Many of the planters had turned their attention to other crops, particularly cotton, which was more sure. The number of sugar houses was reduced from 1,481 in 1852, to 1,299 in 1855, and the reduction was progressive. As a consequence, there was a larger dependence upon the foreign sugar, and this increased American demand happened at a time when a disease broke out among the French vines, causing a demand for sugar for distilation, and the price rose all over the world, when in 1857 the Louisiana crop failed almost altogether. This was a fruitful cause of the financial revulsion in that year. The alarming state of affairs attracted the attention of Congress, which fitted out a vessel to procure fresh supplies of cuttings from Bahia, British Guiana, and for free distribution among the planters. The high price of sugar drew large quantities hither from countries not before known as sugar exporters, and a new article called melado, which has continued to form a portion of the sugar supply, made its appearance.

It will be seen that the consumption during 1862 was greater than in any previous year, notwithstanding the price was higher. In Cuba raw sugar has been during the year about 4½ cents per pound, and the difference between that and New York prices is caused by the duty and the

premium on gold. For instance, to get the actual cost to us, take raw sugar in Cuba at 4½ cents, and add to it the duty which is 2½ cents, making 7 cents; but the duty must be paid in gold, which, at 33 per cent premium, (a point near which it has been a large part of the year,) would add one-third to the duty, or make the cost of the sugar with duty paid 7⅓ cents. Exchange with which the 4½ cents at Cuba had to be paid was 147, while gold was 33, which increased the cost to us 1⅞ cents, making 9⅛ cents per pound the actual cost (without freight) of the raw sugar, while gold was at 33. Now that gold is between 50 and 60, of course the cost has proportionally increased.

The following tables, which we have prepared from Morine's Monthly Circular, show the imports, exports, consumption, and stocks of sugar during the past two years:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN SUGAR AT NEW YORK.

From—	1861.	1862.
Cuba.....tons	145,005	133,923
Porto Rico.....	19,220	15 808
St. Croix.....	152	734
Brazil.....	2,802	3 856
Manila.....	4,877	4,139
Singapore, Java, China, etc.....	1,098	92
Jamaica.....	209	205
Demerara, Barbadoes, Trinidad Island, and other English islands, St. Domingo, and other foreign ports.....	3,434	4,882
European ports.....	....	3,281
Total.....	176,797	166,920

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN SUGAR AT ALL PORTS, (ATLANTIC COAST,) CONSUMPTION, AND STOCK.

At—	1861.	1862.
New York.....tons	176,797	166,920
Boston.....	30,028	28,366
Philadelphia.....	20,852	29,741
Baltimore.....	11,137	16,658
New Orleans.....	526	.....
Other ports.....	3,568	5,330
Total imports of foreign sugar.....	242,908	247,015
Domestic crops.....	117,400	235,858
Total supply of foreign and domestic sugar	360,308	482,873
Consumption of foreign sugar.....	241,420	241,411
" domestic sugar.....	122,399	191,000
Total consump. foreign and domestic sugar	363,819	432,411
Exports.....	29,868	9,774
Stock of foreign sugar at all ports, Dec. 31...	25,915	21,735

Of course in the above tables no account is made of the quantity of

sugar made from sorgho. The amount, however, is inconsiderable, the most of the product being converted into syrup.

As to the trade the coming year, of course reliable estimates cannot be made. What we shall receive from New Orleans is very problematical. All we know is, that a very large import of foreign sugars is looked for, and even higher prices than now rule.

THE CALCUTTA TRADE.

The following statement of the Calcutta trade is made up from the annual review of T. K. CUMMINGS & Co., as published in the Boston *Shipping List*. There has been during the past year, as in 1861, a falling off in this trade:

	Imported into the United States from January 1st to December 31st.			On the way from Calcutta Dec 31.		On board ships in Calcutta
	1862.	1861.	1860.	1862.	1861.	1861.
Saltpetre....bags	84,263	98,697	86,202	23,931	14.760	4,402
Linseed.....	218,350	261,814	493,120	23.039	7,800	....
Linseed ..pockets	54,484	158,225	172,163	10,994	1,250	....
Buffalo hides.pcs.	152,915	182,398	178,862	28,130	....	5,040
Cow hides.....	138,100	252,066	257,690	90,700	....	....
Goat skins.....	473,000	918,000	1,228,531	197,500	58,000	....
Gunny cloth.bales	14,057	51,439	65,252	2,047	2,285	....
Gunny bags.....	15,631	16,275	11,600	2,860	1,570	....
Jute.....	12,385	21,327	14,963	1,570	....	450
Shellac.....cases	1,655	1,408	3,768	1,028	184	....
Lac dye.....	843	938	1,167	327	81	....
Indigo	453	818	1,426	39	8	....
Ginger .....bags	1,465	2,171	2,903	268	500	....
Ginger...pockets	....	1,900	16,003	....	...	....
Hemp.....bales	....	42	150	....	...	....
Castor oil...cases	2,480	4,865	7,881	1,475	...	....
Cutch.....pkgs.	4,295	2,602	10,656	1,345	...	....
Twine....bundles	975	5,179	5,028	100	...	....

Imports of sugar in 1862, none, against 10,378 bags in 1861, against 10,201 in 1860, against 13,009 in 1859, against 12,888 in 1858. Imports of rice in 1862, 17,252 bags against 29,127 in 1861, against 200 in 1860, against 7,000 in 1859.

The total imports of Calcutta goods into the United States have been as follows:

IMPORTS OF CALCUTTA GOODS INTO UNITED STATES.

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Boston.....tons	141,825	77,288	59 920	40,786
New York.....	26,234	37,769	27,801	19,705
Philadelphia.....	7,997	5,616	5,251	.....
Charleston.....	1,495	1,495	....	.....
Savannah.....	....	2,245	631	....:
New Orleans.....	1,535	11,391	5,558	1,186
Mobile.....	....	....	4,732	.....
San Francisco.....	....	....	835	2,064
Total.....	179,086	135,804	104,728	63,741

PRICES CURRENT IN BOSTON.

We give below the prices at Boston, December 31, the two years past:

	1862.	1861.
Saltpetre	15 @ 15½	13 @ 15
Linseed	$3 40 @ ..	$2 40 @ ..
Buffalo hides	17½ @ 18	11½ @ 12½
Cow "	2 00 @ 2 25	1 05 @ 1 70
Goat skins	55 @ 56	20 @ 30
Gunny cloth	15 @ ..	11 @ 11½
" bags	21½ @ 22	13½ @ ..
Jute	1 90 @ ..	1 00 @ 1 20
Shellac	80 @ ..	47½ @ 55
Lac dye	10 @ 50	30 @ 36
Indigo	2 00 @ 2 70	1 75 @ 2 50
Ginger	25 @ ..	12½ @ 13
Castor oil	2 00 @ ..	1 18½ @ 1 25
Cutch	7½ @ ..	6 @ ..
Twine	16 @ ..	15 @ ..

STATISTICS OF THE WHALE FISHERY FOR 1862.

When, one year ago, we presented our eighteenth annual statement of the whale fishery of the United States, the future prospects of the whaling business looked dark and ominous. In the imagination of many, and in the judgment of not a few, whaling, as a business, had—to use a phrase more expressive than it is elegant—"about played out;" whaleships would, before long, be reckoned among the things that once were; and capital that owed its existence, with its rapid increase, and really massive growth, to the daring skill of the harpoon and lance, could no longer be profitably employed, if indeed it could be made to hold its own, by adventuring it in the same pursuits upon the ocean. A few were however less disposed to look on the dark side; and though they might seem to be hoping against hope, and believing against evidence, yet had the heart to hope and to keep hoping, and the courage to believe and keep believing, that somewhat of previous prosperity would yet return, the whaling fleet yet meet with good luck, full cargoes yet be brought home, oil and bone yet be in demand, and whaling yet again become a satisfactory and remunerating business. The hopings and believings of those few have been in a good degree, if not in quite a great measure reached and realized; and we congratulate them and the entire whaling community, at the beginning of this our nineteenth annual statement, upon the better time that has already come, and upon the lighter day that seems to be already dawning.

We found our congratulations mainly upon these facts, viz.: the reduction that has been made in those immense stocks of oil and bone, which, in latter years, have proved to be so profitless and burdensome; the great advance in the prices of both sperm and whale oil that have taken place; and the almost fabulous market price at which bone stands to-day. True, there exists a special reason for the present high prices of oils and bone,

viz.: the disturbed condition of the finances of the country because of the rebellion, and the consequent premium on gold, together with the advanced rates of exchange. Still it may be considered, as if taken for granted, that as long as this special reason shall exist, just so long will the present high prices continue to rule.

The chief obstacles that are now in the way are, most of them, in consequence of the war that the nation is prosecuting. They show themselves mainly in the greatly increased prices of those articles which are essential to the most economical outfit. Southern pine heading can with exceeding difficulty be obtained at any price. The cost of Northern pine is much more than it was before the war. The same, too, is true of hoops, tar, rosin, cordage; and especially true of sail-duck. Also there will be great difficulty in securing for the business as good and suitable ships as many that have been sold out of the business the past year. Also the rates of insurance must necessarily be high and burdensome because of the larger risk on account of the war.

EXPORTS FROM UNITED STATES OF SPERM OIL, WHALE OIL, AND WHALEBONE.

	Barrels.	Barrels.	Pounds.
1862	27,976	68,583	1,004,981
1861	37,547	49,969	1,145,013
1860	32,792	13,007	911,226
1859	52,207	8,179	1,707,929

IMPORTATIONS OF SPERM OIL, WHALE OIL, AND WHALEBONE INTO THE UNITED STATES IN 1862.

Sperm..bbls. 55,641 | Whale..bbls. 100,478 | Bone....lbs. 763,500

IMPORTS FROM 1845 TO 1863.

Imports of—			
1862	55,641	100,478	763,500
1861	68,932	133,717	1,038,450
1860	73,708	140,005	1,337,650
1859	91,408	190,411	1,923,850
1858	81,941	182,223	1,540,600
1857	78,440	230,941	2,058,900
1856	80,941	197,890	2,592,700
1855	72,649	184,015	2,707,500
1854	76,696	319,837	3,445,200
1853	103,077	260,114	5,652,300
1852	78,872	84,211	1,259,900
1851	99,591	328,483	3,966,500
1850	92,892	200,608	2,869,200
1849	100,944	248,492	2,281,100
1848	107,976	280,656	2,003,000
1847	120,753	313,150	3,341,680
1846	95,217	207,493	2,276,930
1845	157,917	272,730	3,167,142

Stock of oil and bone on hand on the first of January in the last six years:

	Sperm, bbls.	Whale, bbls.	Bone, lbs.
1863.....	16,038	23,019	91,500
1862.....	16,132	58,378	295,600
1861.....	15,838	80,469	488,700
1860.....	13,429	96,480	380,600
1859.....	17,176	82,376	400,000
1858.....	39,307	91,193	235,500

Comparative statement of the tonnage of vessels employed in the whale fishery in the United States, January 1, 1862, and January 1, 1863, with a list of vessels added, withdrawn, and lost from the several ports since January 1, 1862:

NEW BEDFORD.

January 1, 1862, 259 ships and barks, 1 sch.....ton	86,971
Added—Ship Brunswick 195, barks Hudson 368, Oriole 404, schooner Dolphin 91.....	1,158
	88,129
Deduct.—Withdrawn, lost, condemned, etc.—Ships Abraham Barker 400, Cambria 362, Chandler Price 441, Benjamin Tucker 349, Empire 403, Gideon Howland 379, Good Return 376, Hiawatha 381, Hibernia 551, Jeanette 340, Julian 356, Junior 378, Joseph Meigs 356, Levi Starbuck 376, Lancaster 383, Montreal 543, Marcia 315, Montezuma, 436, Magnolia 341, Oneida 420, Seconet 400, Thomas Nye 461, William Wirt 387; barks Afton 249, Alto 236, Braganza 470, Cleora 263, Dominga 230, Eben Dodge 221, Elisha Dunbar 257, Franklin 273, Hope 186, Helen Mar 367, Huntress 383, John A. Parker 342, Millinoket 180, Morning Light 361, Montgomery 248, Pamelia 300, R. L. Barstow 203, San Francisco 268, Silver Cloud 451, Virginia 346; schooner Palmyra 100.....	15,068
January 1, 1863, 219 ships and barks, 1 sch. ton.....	73,061

TRADE OF BALTIMORE FOR 1862.

For the following list of imports and exports at Baltimore the past two years we are indebted to the Baltimore *Price Current:*

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE IMPORTS DURING THE PAST TWO YEARS.

	1862.	1861.
Coffee, Rio.....bags	77,775	137,300
Laguayra and Porto Cabello.....	350	.....
Other ports.....	1,010	1,904
Coastwise.....	794	600
Cocoa.....bags and quintals	282	267
Cocoanuts.....M.	1,117	1,253½
Cotton—Charleston.....bales	....	1,129
Savannah.....	....	6,682
Other ports.....	12,000	21,555
Copper.....bars	.....	168

	1862.	1861.
Dyewood—Logwood.....tons	185	103½
Fustic.....	30	20
Fish, from British Provinces—		
Mackerel.....brls.	3,151	2,475
Herrings.....	6,838	10,393
Codfish.....trcs.	355	466
" .....qtls.	5,619	...
Domestic ports—		
Mackerel.....brls.	37,098	16,222
Herrings.....	28,285	22,450
Fruit—Lemons.....bxs.	.....	7,528
Oranges.....	10,295	30,445
Figs.....drums	32,111	.....
" .....cases	354	.....
Raisins.....casks	31	.....
" .....bxs.	23,650	50
Guano.....tons	4,000	30,834
Hides—		
Buenos Ayres.....No. / Montevido.....	21,863	5,531
Rio Grande.....	.....	7,129
Pacific.....	8,743	12,043
Porto Cabello.....	1,574	.....
Other foreign ports.....	1,920	1,920
Coastwise.....	136,211	489
Horns.....No.	25	9,000
Iron.....bars	20,871	31,439
Pig.....tons	1,132	330
Bundles.....	13,711	17,025
Railroad.....bars	.....	.....
Melado.....hhds.	43	628
Molasses, from foreign ports.....	3,172	2,933
" " .....trcs.	2,558	409
" " .....brls.	517	752
" coastwise.....hhds.	...	162
" " .....brls.	756	5,111
Pimento.....bags	107	....
Rice.....trcs.	6	6,908
Salt—Liverpool.....tons.	100	44
Liverpool.....sacks	123,821	153,870
Coastwise.....	1,940	17,465
St. Ubes.....moys	....	1,272
West Indies.....bush.	41,658	78,500
Sugar, from foreign ports.....hhds.	26,616	13,195
" " .....trcs.	.....	211
" " .....brls.	.....	2,250
" " .....bxs.	5,899	13,342
" " .....bags	41,356	57,927
" coastwise.....hhds.	7,605	6,364
" " .....casks	....	82
" " .....brls.	....	1,308

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE PAST TWO YEARS.

		1862.	1861.
Apples	brls.	324	172
Bark, oak		$66,363	$60,000
Bread	pkgs.	26,797	14,640
Beef	trcs.	1,750	694
Beef	brls.	1,174	647
Bacon	lbs.	2,778,400	1,805,387
Butter		300,000	320,215
Cheese		192,627	123,526
Corn	bush.	879,781	742,272
Coal	tons	3,425	6,237
Chairs		$10,000	$13,500
Cotton	bales	.....	3,358
Corn meal	brls.	29,380	17,936
Candles	lbs.	558,000	535,230
Copper		.....	3,007,600
Domestics		$50,000	$262,000
Duck		$10,303	$22,196
Fish, cod		$10,860	$9,000
Fish, mackerel	brls.	2,431	1,000
Flour, wheat		361,158	375,658
Flour, rye		221	876
Lumber		$67,091	$70,000
Lard	lbs.	5,773,272	3,068,029
Oil, whale	galls.	1,471	13,169
Oil meal	lbs.	12,624	348,500
Pork	trcs.	39	....
Pork	brls.	11,716	7,302
Rye, oats, and other small grain	bus.	27,138	30,000
Rosin	brls.	....	9,580
Rum	galls.	....	2,500
Rice	trcs.	....	1,544
Spirits turpentine	galls.	....	5,500
Shooks and heads	pcs.	40,000	45,170
Staves	M.	794	706
Sugar, refined	lbs.	980,235	329,625
Sugar, raw		....	591,300
Soap	lbs.	204,340	150,000
Tobacco, leaf	hhds.	48,831	78,237
Tobacco, manufactured	lbs.	152,614	225,991
Whisky	brls.	....	1,000
Wax	lbs.	215	....
Wheat	bush.	515,281	795,635

SALTPETRE.

ANNUAL REPORT OF ROB'T WILLIAMS & SON, BROKERS, BOSTON.

The import of saltpetre into this market the past year, is less than of the preceding year by 11,104 bags; and into the United States by 12,360

bags. The article, early in January, was rather quiet, with small sales at 12 @ 13c. per lb. Towards the close of this month accounts were received of the removal of the prohibition to the export of the article from Great Britain, and the market closed dull at 11 @ 11½c. per lb. On the 21st day of February we received advices that the prohibition of the export of the article from India took effect there on the 3d of January, and that not only was the export prohibited, but that all the saltpetre on shipboard was ordered to be relanded. Owing to this interruption of the trade, and the consequent prospect of small supplies, large sales were made to manufacturers at 11½ @ 12½c. per lb. cash, and the article closed firm, with an upward tendency. In March and April the article was rather quiet, and prices were somewhat lower. In May moderate sales were made at 11c. cash, to 13c. 6 mos.; and the market closed firm, the prospect of largely increased duties causing holders to show but little disposition to sell, except at advanced rates. About the 15th of June, some 10,000 bags, mostly to arrive in New York, were taken quietly by the government; this caused some demand for speculation, and considerable sales were made here, and to arrive, at full rates. The uncertainty in regard to the new tariff, the high rates of exchange, and the reduced stocks, caused much firmness in the article. Our stock, at the end of this month, was about 2,000 bags, and holders, to arrive, refused to sell except for "cash in bond." Early in July, the passage of the new tariff, making the duty 2c. per lb. on all saltpetre that arrived after 1st August, was announced, and the market continued firm through the month, with fair sales at full prices. In August we had a good demand, and the sales were large at 13 @ 13½c. cash, and a prize cargo of superior, by order of the United States Marshall, at equal to 15c. per lb. cash. On the 28th of August our stock was reduced to 900 bags, the lowest point for the year; but four cargoes arrived at once after this, and our stock, on the 1st September, was 6,400 bags. In September the sales were liberal, at 13c. cash, and continued at about this rate until the 15th October, when the extreme rates for exchange, say 45 per cent, and of demand notes, and the greatly diminished shipments from India, caused more firmness, and the article was in favor with manufacturers and speculators, and prices gradually advanced, and on the 1st of November were fully 15c. per lb. cash, and at this rate large sales were made through November. In December the demand was fair, with considerable sales to manufacturers, at 15c. cash. Holders were somewhat firmer on account of the destruction of the ship T. B. Wales, with 1,704 bags, from Calcutta, by the Alabama, and the probable loss of the North Atlantic, with 5,332 bags, and the market closes firm at 15c. per lb. cash.

The imports from Calcutta into the United States, for the year, have been—

Boston .....bags		54,722
New York		30,551
Total.....		85,273

In addition to the above, there has been imported from Europe into—

Boston.....	500	
New York.....	1,200	
Philadelphia	2,300	
		4,000

Total imports into the United States for 1862.	89,273
Total imports into Boston	55,222
" " " New York	31,751
" " " Philadelphia	2,300
Stock now in Boston	7,855
" " New York	4,000
" " Philadelphia	1,500

There has also been imported into the Philadelphia market, about 40,000 bags of saltpetre on government account from Europe, and some further lots on same account in New York. The bulk of the stock now in New York is owned in Boston. There has been no demand for export through the year.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF IMPORTS THE PAST NINE YEARS.

	Boston.	New York.	Phila. and other ports.	Total.
1862.....bags	55,222	31,751	2,300	89,273
1861	66,326	29,446	5,861	101,633
1860	65,114	21,454	7,072	93,640
1859	87,527	7,952	8,115	103,594
1858	75,771	10,194	4,213	90,178
1857	126,486	20,088	2,654	149,228
1856	89,834	7,522	....	97,356
1855	110,906	10,282	10,282	131,763
1854	117,900	8,728	8,728	126,628
Total.....	795,086	147,417	40,790	983,293

There has been several sales of prize cargoes by order of the United States Marshal, through the year, in New York and Philadelphia.

The stock in Boston, at this time, is 7,855 bags, against 8,200 in 1862; 12,000 in 1861; 8,286 in 1860; 17,468 in 1859; 25,260 in 1858; 13,100 in 1857; 8,395 in 1856; 15,144 in 1855.

The quantity on the way, up to the last dates, November 18, from Calcutta, is 29,990 bags. Including the North Atlantic's cargo, referred to above, and the quantity loading at the same time for the United States was 8,744 bags. The large manufacturers have imported heavily through the year, and it is supposed that considerable of that to arrive the new year will be on government account.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

THE BANKS OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

INDIA TRADE *vs.* BULLION RESERVES.

The unusual cotton trade with India is working out its natural results so rapidly, that Europe is already begining to feel the beauties of a monetary crisis. Great Britain has been left with a balance against her and in favor of India for the last nine months of over 50,000,000, to be paid in specie, and the continued arrivals of cotton at the present high prices does not argue any immediate relief. We have drawn the attention of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* from month to month to the steady drain which has been in action on the bullion reserves of England. For instance, up to 7th of January there was a decrease of £3,812,888, and since that time the bank reserve has continued to grow no better very fast, until on the 28th of January the minimum rate of discount was raised 5 per cent, and the drain appears to have been temporarily checked. The Bank of France too is of course involved in the same difficulty, and has raised its rate of discount to the same point—in fact, it moved first and England followed. Seven months ago the bullion reserve of these two banks stood as follows:

Bank of England July 30.....	£18,448,443
Bank of France July 10.....	15,688,876
Total reserve of both banks in July, 1862	£34,137,319

The present reserve is however as follows;

Bank of England February 4, 1863	£13,692,136
Bank of France January, 1863.....	10,726,008
	£24,418,143

Thus it will be seen that there has been a loss to these great specie reservoirs during the last seven months of about £10,000,000. If this India trade is to continue at the same rate, we cannot but look for greater disturbance in the European money market. Whether these banks will be driven to suspend specie payments before the year is up, as some predict, we would not undertake to say. Certainly we wish them no evil, but still it is very gratifying to know that the financial writers over the water will have something to talk about, for the present at least, nearer home, than *our* money troubles.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

We bring down our Bank of England returns this month to the 4th of February. It will be seen that during the last four weeks the rate of discount was raised twice, and the final effect has been to make the bullion movements more satisfactory. An increase is reported for the last week of £80,313.

The following comparative table will be found of interest, affording as it does, a view of the bank returns, the bank rate of discount, and the price of wheat in London during a period of three years corresponding with the date of our last returns, February 4th:

At corresponding dates with the week ending February 4th.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Circulation, including bank post bills...	£20,534,616	£21,427,554	£20,709,154
Public deposits.....	4,186,479	5,788,441	6,351,617
Other deposits.....	11,927,180	14,179,917	13,352,278
Government securities	8,444,776	11,801,802	10,602,879
Other securities	19,934,408	17,435,550	19,297,354
Reserve of notes and coin.....	6,428,601	9,872,248	8,271,591
Coin and bullion	11,832,836	15,956,903	13,692,136
Bank rate of discount	7 per cent.	2½ p. cent.	5 per cent.
Average price of wheat..	55s. 6d.	60s. 2d.	47s. 11d.

Subjoined is our usual table with the returns brought down to February 4th, 1863:

WEEKLY STATEMENT.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 17....	£19,932,360	£8,507,144	£14,033,994	£30,539,368	£15,031,658	3 pr. ct.
" 24....	20,150,398	8,654,499	14,306,497	31,346,731	14,870,795	3 "
" 31.. .	20,516,435	8,338,717	15,469,254	32,488,020	14,956,421	3 "
Jan. 7....	20,927,993	8,782,808	14,393,308	32,620,233	14,635,555	3 "
" 14....	21,018,849	4,280,730	16,772,782	31,165,075	14,102,169	4 "
" 21....	20.893,931	4,965,798	14,993.225	30,227,086	13,855,849	4 "
" 28....	20,771,236	5,416,863	14,414,763	30,238,865	13,611,823	5 "
Feb. 4....	20,709,154	6,351,617	13,352,287	29,997,233	13,692,136	5 "

NEW YORK BANKS.

There are no changes of moment in the returns of the New York Banks the past month. We continue our usual table to and including the statement for the week ending February 21.

CITY WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1862, $69,493,577.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 3,....	$173,810,009	$35,954,550	$9,754,355	$159,163,246	$186,861,762
" 10,....	175,816,010	36,770,746	9,551,563	162,878,249	249,796,489
" 17,....	176,606,558	37,581,465	9,241,670	164,666,008	314,471,457
" 24,....	179,288,266	38,549,794	9,083,419	168,269,228	298,861,366
February 7,....	179,892,161	38,243,839	8,780,154	166,342,777	302,352,571
" 14,. ...	178,103,592	38,426,460	8,756,217	167,720,880	265,139,104
" 21,....	178,335,880	37,981,310	8,752,536	170,103,758	291,242,929

BOSTON BANKS.

We continue our Boston bank returns through the month of February.

The changes are unimportant, except it may be the increase in the loans and deposits, which increase will be found to be quite regular each month during the year past.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $————; *Jan.*, 1862, $33,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,..	$77,339,046	$7,672,028	$8,190,496	$33,372,648	.....	.....
" 12,..	77,427,000	7,751,000	8,378,000	33,063,800	17,006,000	13,520,000
" 19,..	76,624,700	7,710,600	8,199,600	33,352,000	16,547,800	13,727,700
" 26,...	76,354,000	7,710,700	8,008,500	33,347,000	16,811,700	13,958,000
Feb. 2,..	76,496,800	7,685,000	8,365,000	34,076,800	16,389,000	14,490,000
" 9,..	78,431,000	7,707,000	8,074,000	35,178,600	16,932,000	14,183,000
" 16,..	78,431,000	7,794,000	8,001,000	34,903,000	17,070,700	14,095,500
" 23,..	76,782,600	7,624,000	8,002,000	34,965,500	17,331,000	14,583,800

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

The returns of the banks of Philadelphia will be found below, brought down to the 23d of February.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970,130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,...	$37,679,675	$4,510,750	$4,504,115	$28,429,189	$6,948,785	$1,994,928
" 12,...	37,533,757	4,544,786	4,450,676	28,018,792	6,890,963	1,848,932
" 19,...	37,416,694	4,549,369	4,382,520	27,877,069	7,050,847	2,275,905
" 26,...	37,479,712	4,572,419	4,284,947	28,773,517	6,755,980	2,638,985
Feb 2,...	37,268,894	4,562,580	4,181,503	29,231,753	6,698,210	2,909,857
" 9,...	37,336,867	4,319,706	4,039,918	28,062,164	6,953,215	2,518,036
" 16,...	37,710,851	4,272,347	3,888,185	28,759,049	7,452,563	2,432,073
" 23,...	37,720,460	4,276,761	3,772,781	29,342,596	7,413,249	2,703,196

MISSOURI BANKS.

Annexed are the principal items of the semi-annual statements of the banks of Missouri, made December 31, 1862:

	Coin.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Discounts.
Bank State Missouri...	$1,182,280	$845,183	$731,929	$1,975,225
Merch. Bank St. Louis.	656,960	798,990	655,613	1,290,126
South. Bank St. Louis.	315,865	651,825	575,875	979,603
Mech. Bank St. Louis.	354,942	580,087	450,993	1,295,859
Exch. Bank St. Louis.	301,589	16,555	525,329	227,057
Union Bank Missouri.	147,329	237,530	111,602	585,898
Bank St. Louis.....	223,147	253,875	147,516	278,635
Western Bank Missouri	207,715	211,961	215,503	273,235
Farmers' Bank Missouri	276,186	441,271	19,899	428,486
Total.....	$3,666,017	$4,637,277	$3,434,262	$7,334,128

The banks also hold $699,624 exchange matured, and $1,771,023 exchange maturing. Their total capital is $11,247,681.

GOVERNMENT SECURITIES HELD BY NEW YORK BANKS.

Mr. VAN DYCK, bank superintendent, has prepared a table showing what United States stocks and notes were held by the banks of this State on the 19th of January. They had the following amounts:

	General banks.	Savings banks.
United States stocks	$31,670,780	$10,392,102
7.30 notes	25,398,505	3,460,162
Certificates of indebtedness	14,941,679	2,543,666
Certificates bearing interest	37,047,370	1,143,200
Gold certificates	6,774,812	.....
Demand and legal tender notes	20,189,098	130,000
Total	$135,968,044	$17,669,130
Grand total		$153,637,174

STATE OF THE BANK OF KENTUCKY AND BRANCHES, JAN. 5, 1863.

RESOURCES.

Bills of exchange, maturing and past due	$1,587,137 45	
Notes discounted, " "	1,751,086 80	
Suspended debt in suit, notes and bills	493,676 82	
126 bonds city of Louisville, 6 per cent.	94,750 00	
Loan to State of Kentucky	500,000 00	
Stocks and bonds of other corporations, etc.	7,511 02	
Real estate for debt	64,270 27	
Assets of Schuylkill Bank	125,844 59	
		$4,264,276 95
Due from banks other than Eastern		1,596,217 29
Real estate for banking houses		81,250 97
Cash—Gold and silver	$886,665 36	
Notes of other banks and U. S. legal tender	646,365 00	
On deposit in New York and Phila.	1,368,151 44	
Government stamps	215 00	
	$2,901,396 80	
Deduct seized and carried off by the rebels at Columbus, by Gen. POLK	44,938 18	
		2,856,458 62
		$9,158,203 83

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock		$3,666,400 00
Contingent fund required by charter	$74,000 00	
Fund to cover bad debts	71,320 21	
Profit and loss after deducting dividend No. 50 and tax	454,786 74	
		600,106 95
Dividends unpaid	$10,038 36	
Dividend No. 50, declared this day, 2½ per cent and tax	94,494 84	
		104,533 20
Due to banks		1,406,709 39
Due to depositors, including State Treasury		2,255,511 29
Circulation		1,124,943 00
		$9,158.203 83

A large proportion of bills of exchange and discounted notes belonging to the Southern and other Branches are now past due, and not yet renewed, in consequence mainly of the interruption of communication by the occupation of territory by the rebels, the want of the necessary revenue stamps, and the general disorganization of the country.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY OF THE CONFEDERATE STATES.

The report of the financial officer of the Richmond Government was published on the 10th of January, and from it we get an inside view of the condition of their Treasury, past, present, and prospective. They tell us that from the commencement of their government Febuary 18, 1862, to the 31st of December, 1862, the receipts and expenditures were as follows:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES UP TO DECEMBER 31, 1862.

RECEIPTS.

Patent fund	$13,920
Customs	668,566
Miscellaneous	2,291,812
Repayment of disbursing officers	3,839,268
Interest on loans	26,583
Call loan certificates	59,742,796
One hundred million loan	41,398,286
Treasury notes	215,554,885
Interest bearing notes	113,740,000
War tax	16,664,518
Loan of 28th of February, 1861	1,375,276
Coin received from Bank of Louisiana	2,530,799
Total	$457,855,704

EXPENDITURES.

War Department	$341,011,754
Navy Department	20,559,283
Civil, miscellaneous, foreign intercourse, and customs	13,673,376
Total	$375,244,413
Public debt	41,727,322
Grand total	$416,971,735
Add balance against the Treasury on February 18, 1862	26,439,572
Total	$443,411,307
Amount of receipts	$457,855,704
Deduct amount of expenditures	443,411,307
Balance	$14,444,397

This balance consists in part of the coin on hand received from Bank of Louisiana, and the remainder in interest bearing Treasury notes.

The appropriations made by Congress, and not yet drawn from the Treasury, are $81,879,913.

The estimates for the support of the government to 1st July, the end of the fiscal year, are $290,493,713.

In order to ascertain the amount to be raised by Congress, we must add—

1. The estimates	$290,493,713	
2. Undrawn appropriations	81,879,913	
		$372,376,626
And deduct the balance in the Treasury of		14,444,397
Leaving amount to be raised		357,929,229

The debt of the government was, at the same date, as follows:

Bonds and stocks	$145,475,870
Treasury notes	420,629,692
Total	$566,105,562

EXCESSIVE CIRCULATION—THE REMEDY PROPOSED.

The Treasurer tells us that *the issue of Treasury notes on the last day of December amounted to* $290,149,602, *exclusive of interest-bearing notes. By adding to this sum a sufficient amount to cover the State Treasury notes and the bank notes in circulation we can arrive at the sum total of the currency. Twenty millions added to the Treasury notes would probably represent the whole.*

It is this aggregate, he says, which must be kept in view when we deal with the currency as a measure of values. It is the whole mass as it is accepted by the community in exchange for its various commodities which by its proportional relations to those commodities determines their prices. By a law as invariable as any law of physical nature, these prices rise or fall with the actual volume of the whole currency. Neither skill nor power can vary the result. It is, in fact, a relation subsisting between two numbers, the one representing the total values of property and the other the total circulating medium. The nature of that medium cannot change it. It would exist with a currency of gold with as much certainty as with one of paper, if the gold were kept within the country by restraints equal to those which retain the paper.

The Treasurer then goes on to say that the circulation must be reduced, as that is the only remedy for an inflated currency. Before the war the circulation in the Confederate States was about $100,000,000. In order, therefore, that prices may be brought down to the usual point, two-thirds of entire volume of the currency must be withdrawn, which would leave a circulation of about $150,000,000. The remedy proposed is that *after the lapse of a reasonable time the issues of Treasury notes bearing date prior to the* 1*st December*, 1862, *shall cease to be currency. This can be done with the least possible injury by following up the action of Congress at the last session, and fixing a period of limitation for funding these notes.*

The Secretary adds that as the law now stands, these notes are receiv-

able for government dues, and the holder is entitled to fund them in eight per cent securities, until the 22d of April next, after which date he can fund in seven per cent. I propose simply to fix a period of limitation for the exercise of this last mentioned privilege by enacting that after 1st July next the privilege of funding these notes shall cease. Six months have already been allowed for investment in eight per cent securities, according to the contract on the face of the note. Two months more will be allowed for investment in seven per cent, and if, after so long a notice, the holders do not choose to avail themselves of their privilege, the good faith of the government will stand clear of imputation.

But it is essential to good faith that ample means should be provided by the government to secure and pay the principal and interest of the securities in which the holders are required to invest. *This can only be effected by an ample and permanent tax. Such a tax is the corner stone of the whole fabric.* Without it, the scheme has no foundation, and can secure neither public confidence nor success.

To provide against any future redundancy, he proposes that the States should guarantee the war debt of the government, which he thinks will enable them to reduce the interest on their bonds to six per cent. The scheme proposed then is embraced in these three essential features:

1. *A limitation upon the privilege of funding the notes issued prior to 1st December.*

2. *A war tax.*

3. *A guarantee by the State.*

TAXATION PROPOSED.

On this point the Secretary says: It must first be ascertained what amount it is necessary to raise.

It has already been shown that up to the 1st of July next the Treasury notes in circulation will exceed	$500,000,000
Deduct the circulation proposed to be left, say	150,000,000
Remaining funded.....	$350,000,000
The annual interest on this sum at eight per cent is....	$28,000,000
To this must be added the interest upon about one hundred and twenty million dollars of 7.30 notes.....	8,760,000
And about $60,000,000 of six per cent certificates.....	3,600,000
Also the interest upon eight per cent bonds and stock, say about $100,000,000.....	8,000,000
Total	$48,360,000

This amount shows the lowest figures which should be raised by the tax. The soundest considerations of policy would add as largely to this sum as the people of our country can bear. If the tax be made payable in all kinds of Treasury notes it would absorb so much of the first issues, and, by reducing the amount to be funded, would abate the force of the objections to the scheme. *If sixty millions of notes could be thus called in, the benefits resulting would fully counterbalance every possible hardship.* The currency would promptly recover its value, the bonds would become

an object of investment instead of being thrown on the market, and a sure and steady system of finance would be established.

A tax of one per cent on property, if it could be made as productive as last year's, would raise twice the amount of the last war tax, say forty millions. But inasmuch as portions of the States are in the hands of the enemy, it would be proper to make a deduction of probably one-tenth, which would leave the amount at only thirty-six millions.

This sum would be subject to still further abatement so long as the decision of the Confederate Court of South Carolina as to the power of Congress to tax State bonds remains unreversed. The very large amount of money invested in this form was included in the war tax of last year, and the tax thereon was paid everywhere except by those who raised the question in South Carolina. For the ensuing year the case would be different. If the same was laid by Congress, it is probable that the holders of State bonds would claim exemption under this decision, and Congress itself might be unwilling to re-enact, in the same form, a law which had been declared unconstitutional by the co-ordinate branch of the government, until that decision is reversed. The question is of such magnitude and involves such great interests that appeal was taken. But this appeal cannot be decided until a Supreme Court shall be organized. It may be worthy, therefore, of the consideration of Congress, whether the question should not be raised in another form by taxing the income of the bonds in the hands of the citizens. The taxing power over income in the hands of citizens for consumption may be distinguished from that over State bonds specifically as property. In my view, both are constitutional, and the public interests demand that every proper effort should be made to insure a consideration of the question in all its aspects. In either case, however, the tax would probably prove unproductive until the question shall be finally decided. It is necessary, therefore, to estimate for an abatement on the tax of last year. Assuming one hundred millions as the probable amount invested in State securities, a tax of one per cent would amount to $1,000,000, and so much must therefore be abated from the estimate.

In estimating the rate of a tax on incomes, the only basis to which I can refer is the value of the entire property of the eleven Confederate States. It may be assumed that the net income of this property is measured by the average rate of legal interests of the money which represents its value. If the tax were laid upon net income, and that income were faithfully returned, it could in this way be estimated with some degree of accuracy. But the devices are so many by which a return of net income can be evaded as to make such returns unreliable. A resort to gross income is therefore more expedient. The difference between the two must be at least 25 per cent; but under existing circumstances, and for the purpose of an estimate, it would be prudent to disregard the difference and assume that the returns of gross income will be about equal to the average rate of legal interest. It is believed that even the proceeds of skill, speculation and labor, which may be returned where no capital is involved, will not materially vary the result.

The estimate formerly made to Congress of the value of all the property in the eleven Confederate States, in which taxes have been collected, was $4,632,000,000. *If we leave out the odd number in these figures, on account of such property as is now beyond the reach of taxation, and for other con-*

tingencies, we have in round numbers $4,000,000,000 *The average of interest in the Confederate States may be set down at 7 per cent, which would make the total income equal to say* $280,000,000. A tax of 10 per cent on this sum would produce in the gross about $28,000,000, and this, added to the property tax of $35,000,000, would raise a sum total of $63,000,000, or, in round numbers, $60,000,000, after deducting expenses and contingencies.

PAYMENT OF DEBT, ETC.

The Treasurer says: *Assuming that the States may be induced to extend their guaranty to* $500,000,000, *I propose to adjust the debt upon the plan of the hundred million loan, so as to insure its discharge within a given period.* The length of this period depends upon the sum which Congress will devote to the annual payments. The commencement of the period or the date at which the first payment is to be made is, of course, within the control of Congress, and involves the same inquiry as to the amount now to be raised by taxes. A postponement of this first payment of principal would seem to allow a diminution of the tax. But it must be observed that some considerable time must elapse before the guarantees of the States can be had; and further time must be consumed in carrying the plan into execution and in procuring returns of the sales. During all this period the 8 per cent and 7.30 notes are outstanding, and will absorb nearly as much more money as will afterwards be required to meet the first annual payments on the principal. Besides this, it cannot be too strongly urged that the present is the appropriate moment at which to commence a proper system of taxes. The patriotism of the country is now fully aroused. The duty of contributing largely to the support of the government is generally recognized. The large amount of money in circulation will make the payment easy, and the payment itself will aid the taxpayer by reducing prices to their proper condition.

The collection of the produce loan, together with the purchase of produce under the act of April 21, 1862, has been prosecuted with vigor. The total amount of subscriptions to the loan, valued in money, is about $25,000,000; of which $7,631,044 have been collected at an expense of one-third of one per cent. The purchases of cotton thus far reported by the agents amount to 69,507 bales, costing $4,474,400. The purchases at the present moment have probably reached 250,000 bales, including those of which reports are on the way. In order to dispose of the cotton, two forms of certificates have been devised. By one the various parcels of cotton are registered and disposed of. By the other the government obligate itself to deliver certain quantities at certain points at a fixed price. By the advice of our ministers abroad, some of the latter certificates, covering about 30,000 bales of cotton, have been placed, as an experiment, in the foreign market; but sufficient time has not elapsed to hear from them. The details of this branch of the department are set forth in the report of the clerk in charge, to which your attention is invited. The important and responsible duties entrusted to this clerk render it proper that his office should be placed on a level with other branches in the department. I would therefore respectfully recommend that the office be raised to the grade of a chief clerkship.

The legislation which will be required to carry into effect the several matters recommended in this report, is the following:

1. An act limiting the period for funding the Treasury notes, bearing date prior to 1st December, 1862.

2. Authority to issue a sufficient amount of Treasury notes to pay the appropriations required for the support of the government to 1st July next.

3. Authority to issue bonds and stock sufficient to fund the notes already issued, entitled to be funded at eight per cent, and those hereafter to be funded at seven per cent.

4. A call upon the States to guaranty the war debt, upon a plan to issue six per cent bonds, payable in instalments, in twenty-five years, upon the plan of the one hundred million loan.

5. A modification of the loan act of April, 1862, by reducing the time to five years, within which the government may redeem the bonds.

6. A war tax upon property and income.

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF MICHIGAN.

From the report of the State Treasurer of Michigan we take the following statement for the year ending November 30, 1862:

The total amount of receipts of the office for the fiscal year, is		$1,124,595 10
The balance against the treasury, and in favor of State Nov. 30, 1861, was	$27,179 79	
The total of payments for the year is.	896,620 69	
Leaving a balance in the treasury of...	200,794 62	
		$1,124,595 10

WAR DEBT.

During the past year, there has been sold $158,200 war bonds authorized by "an act authorizing a war loan," approved May 10, 1861. These bonds were mostly sold early in the year, to meet the war expenses incurred in 1861.

The amount received for the bonds sold was	$150,539 94
To which add for accrued interest	2,578 80
And for premium on gold received for bonds	31 88
Total	$153,150 62

STATE DEBT.

The funded debt of the State is as follows:

Full paid $5,000,000 loan bonds 6 per cents, due January 1, 1863	$177,000 00
Adjusted bonds, 6 per cents, due January 1, 1863	1,746,185 00
Temporary loan, 7 per cents, due January 1, 1878	50,000 00
Renewal loan, 6 per cents, due January 1, 1878	216,000 00
Canal bonds, 6 per cents, due January 1, 1879	100,000 00
War loan, 7 per cents, due January 1, 1886	607,300 00
Outstanding internal improvement warrants	3,553 75

FUNDABLE DEBT.

$140,000 outstanding part paid $5,000,000 loan, which, when funded, will amount to	80,999 80
Total of funded and fundable debt	$2,981,038 55

The trust fund debt is made up of the following items, to-wit:

Primary school fund	$753,801 73
University fund	185,887 33
Normal school fund	22,453 47
Railroad deposits	2,217 32
Total	$964,359 85

During the past year, the balance of the "Penitentiary Bonds," amounting to $13,000, has been paid.

Under the provisions of section 7, of "An act authorizing a war loan," approved May 10, 1861, and of section 1, of "An act to provide a tax for interest on the war loan," approved May 10, 1861, the sum of $40,072 99 has been received, which is applicable to the war loan sinking fund. The requisite drawings of the numbers of our small war bonds, to be redeemed, was made on the first of October, and the numbers drawn have been advertised for redemption on the first day of January next. This will reduce the "war loan" debt to $567,227 01. It will be further reduced by about $48,000, which will be applicable to the sinking fund at the close of 1863.

In pursuance of section 9, of "An act to provide means for the redemption of the bonds of the State, maturing January 1, 1863, approved March 11, 1861," a circular was issued to the holders of such bonds inviting an exchange of the six per cents authorized to be issued by the act. In response to this circular a portion of the bonds have been exchanged, and sealed proposals invited for the purchase of the balance. Under the law, these proposals are to be received on the first day of December in the city of New York. Upon the completion of this negotiation, it will be made the subject of a special report to the Legislature.

TWO MILLION LOAN SINKING FUND.

Under the provisions of section 4, of act No. 122, approved March 11, 1861, the sum of $21,506 98 has been levied in the State tax of 1862, which will be applicable to the sinking fund of the "two million loan" at the close of the year 1863. Section 6 of the same act also provides "that all moneys which may be paid into the Treasury after January, 1863, to the credit of the Primary, School, Normal School, and University funds, shall be set apart and in like manner applied to the purchase of bonds issued under this act. This wise and liberal provision for the gradual but certain retirement of our bonds has had the effect to advance their value in the market, and to materially promote the credit of our State, which is soon to take rank among the most favored in the land. It is therefore respectfully suggested that no legislation hereafter should be permitted, the effect of which would alienate these funds from the object contemplated under the law above referred to.

The State Auditor gives the following schedule of the receipts and expenditures:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES FOR THE YEAR ENDING NOVEMBER 30, 1862.

At the commencement of the year the Treasury was overdrawn to the amount of $28,334 53.

	Expended.	Received.
General Fund	$318,304 00	$775,884 11
Internal Improvement Fund	117,343 01	463 22
University Fund	.....	13,668 81
University Interest Fund	56,250 97	17,803 68
Primary School Fund	43 00	35,030 74
Primary School Interest Fund	127,495 43	63,960 76
Normal School Fund	.....	2,774 00
Normal School Interest Fund	10,023 50	3,010 49
Swamp Land Fund	32,937 75	29,695 60
Swamp Land Interest Fund	516 64	9,270 71
State Building Fund	12 75	1,129 50
Asylum Fund	65,027 25	3,752 48
Sault Ste Marie Canal Fund	6,775 18	15,000 38
Military Fund	1,324 10	.....
War Fund	159,901 75	153,150 62
Michigan Central Railroad Deposits	97 75	.....
*Balance charged State Treasurer Nov. 30, 1862	200,207 49	.....
	$1,124,595 10	$1,124,595 10

MISSOURI STATE FINANCES.

We have received through a correspondent of the State Auditor of Public Accounts, a statement of the public debt of Missouri, made up to this time. From this statement we gather the following particulars. The whole indebtedness of the State is $27,370,090, and is composed of the items named below:

Miscellaneous debts	$602,000
Pacific Railroad bonds, (main)	7,000,000
Pacific Railroad, Southwest Branch	4,500,000
Hannibal and St. Joseph	3,000,000
North Missouri	3,350,000
Iron Mountain	3,600,000
Cairo and Fulton	650,000
Platte County	700,000
Revenue bonds	431,000
State defense warrants	725,000
Arrears of interest due	1,812,000
Total	$27,370,000

A small portion of this debt bears 5½ per cent interest, and another, but inconsiderable amount, 7 per cent.

* To this amount add for outstanding warrants, $587 13, making actual cash balance in hands of State Treasurer, $200,794 62.

THE NEW UNITED STATES BANKING ACT.

The banking bill, which Congress has just passed, and which we have referred to in our financial review, is a measure of very great importance. It creates a Bureau in the Treasury Department under the title of the Controller of the Currency, nominated by the Secretary of the Treasury and appointed by the President and Senate; salary, $5,000; bonds, $100,000; to hold office for five years; to have deputy clerks, &c., none of whom shall be interested in any banking under the act.

Associations for banking may be formed by not less than five persons, who shall make certificates specifying the name of their association, its location, amount of capital, which shall be not less than $50,000, (and in cities of over ten thousand population, not less than $100,000;) names, residence, and number of shares of stockholders, and time of beginning business; this certificate to be legally acknowledged. Thirty per cent of capital stock to be paid in at commencing, and the remaining capital at ten per cent every two months until paid up. If any one fails to pay, his stock to be sold at auction, after three weeks' advertising. If not bid in so as to cover assessments and costs, it is forfeited to the association. When the Controller is satisfied that these conditions are complied with, he shall give the association a certificate authorizing them to commence business, which fact shall be advertised for sixty days. All these associations are authorized to do business in the usual form, sue and be sued, and to perform all the ordinary functions of banking. Their shares are transferable, personal property carrying their liabilities with them. Capital may be increased from time to time as may be deemed expedient. They may hold real estate necessary for their business, such as may be mortgaged as security for lands, such as may be conveyed for debts and such as they may purchase under their mortgages, and no other.

Preliminary to commencing, they deliver to the United States Treasurer interest-bearing bonds of the government to the specified amount, and receive currency circulating notes in blank, registered and countersigned, equal to ninety per cent of the current value of the bonds deposited, but not exceeding the par value, and at no time shall such notes exceed the capital stock paid in. The entire amount shall not exceed $300,000,000—$150,000,000 to associations in States and Territories, according to representative population; the other $150,000,000 to be distributed in the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury.

GOVERNMENT CIRCULATION PROPOSED BY THE BILL, THE AMOUNT ALLOTTED ACCORDING TO CONGRESSIONAL REPRESENTATION, AND THE AMOUNT TO BE ALLOTTED ACCORDING TO BANK CAPITAL.

State.	Representation.	Capital.	Total.
Maine	$3,110,000	$2,833,000	$5,943,000
New Hampshire	1,866,000	1,680,000	3,546,000
Vermont	1,866,000	1,390,000	3,256,000
Massachusetts	6,222,000	23,972,000	30,194,000
Rhode Island	1,245,000	7,453,000	8,698,000
Connecticut	2,490,000	7,737,000	10,227,000
New York	19,300,000	38,568,000	57,868,000
New Jersey	3,110,000	2,846,000	5,956,000
Pennsylvania	14,950,000	9,164,000	24,114,000

States.	Representation.	Capital.	Total.
Delaware	622,000	674,000	1,296,000
Maryland	3,110,000	4,366,000	7,476,000
District of Columbia	.....	284,000	284,000
California	1,868,000	.....	1,868,000
Illinois	8,712,000	355,000	9,067,000
Indiana	6,840,000	1,619,000	8,459,000
Iowa	3,734,000	295,000	4,029,000
Kansas	622,000	35,000	657,000
Kentucky	5,600,000	5,324,000	10,924,000
Michigan	3,734,000	213,000	3,947,000
Minnesota	1,245,000	106,000	1,351,000
Missouri	5,600,000	3,993,000	9,593,000
Ohio	11,820,000	2,022,000	13,842,000
Oregon	622,000	.....	622,000
Tennessee	4,982,000	3,549,000	8,581,000
Wisconsin	3,730,000	1,085,000	4,815,000
Alabama	3,734,000	1,739,000	5,473,000
Arkansas	1,868,000	.....	1,868,000
Florida	622,000	149,000	771,000
Georgia	4,360,000	5,874,000	10,334,000
Louisiana	3,110,000	8,731,000	11,841,000
Mississippi	3,110,000	.....	3,110,000
North Carolina	4,360,000	2,789,000	7,149,000
South Carolina	2,497,000	5,306,000	7,803,000
Texas	2,497,000	.....	2,497,000
Virginia	6,842,000	5,849,000	12,691,000
Seceding States	$33,000,000	$33,437,000	$63,437,000
Loyal States	117,000,000	119,563,000	236,563,000
Total United States	$150,000,000	$150,000,000	$300,000,000

The notes are to be from $5 to $1,000, and express on their face that they are secured, and bear the signature and seal of the Treasury Department; also the signatures of the president and cashier of the association. The Secretary is to devise the form and embellishment, and have custody of the dies and manufacture.

In lieu of all taxes on circulation under this act, or bonds deposited, each association shall pay semi-annually one per cent upon the notes received, returns to be made on the 1st July and 1st January, and in default two per cent of the capital, to be recovered for the Treasury.

When duly issued, these notes shall be received at par in payment of taxes, excises, public lands and all other dues to the United States, except interest on public debt; and no association shall issue any other circulating notes, under a penalty of fine and imprisonment.

If any bank fail to redeem its notes, the holder may protest them before a notary, whereupon the bank may be suspended by the Controller under forms prescribed, their securities forfeited to the United States and enough cancelled to redeem the notes refused. In case of suspension the securities to be sold at auction in New York after thirty days' notice.

The Controller may, to promote the public interest, sell such stock at private sale, but for not less than the current market value.

The stockholders are not personally liable for debts of the Bank to an amount greater than three-fifths of the capital stock paid in. The shares shall be $100 each; no stockholder can sell or transfer while he is liable for any debt of the association, or receive any dividend, interest or profit while such liability continues. The same security, both in kind and amount, shall be required of shareholders as of other persons. No bank shall purchase or hold its own stock or the stock of any other company, unless in case of forfeiture or prevent loss upon debts.

Every such bank shall be managed by five to nine directors, each to be a citizen and resident in the State one year, and own at least one per cent. Of the capital stock up to two hundred thousand dollars, one-half per cent, if over that. Every bank shall always have on hand in lawful money at least twenty-five per cent, of its out-standing notes and deposits. They shall not hypothecate notes to procure money to be paid in on their own capital stock, or used in other banking operations. No bank shall permit dividends or loans to stockholders for more than six months; if losses at any time exceed profits on hand, no dividend shall ever be made greater than the net profits on hand, deducting losses and bad debts. Semi-annual dividends may be declared as the directors may judge expedient. The banks may take, in advance, discount on notes, bills of exchange, &c., at the current established rates by the laws of the several States; taking higher interest forfeits the debt. There are elaborate regulations regarding the business of exchange. Several penalties are provided for misconduct on the part of the banks, their officers, &c. The Secretary may use these banks as depositories of public moneys, except for customs. Legal proceedings under the act are to be directed by the Solicitor of the Treasury. Provision is made against mutilation and counterfeiting of notes. And lastly the Controller of the Currency is to make a full report annually to Congress of the condition of each of those banks and associations.

TAX ON BONDS ISSUED IN AID OF RAILROAD COMPANY.

The following decision has been made by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue concerning coupons or bonds issued by or in aid of a railroad company. In case of bonds issued by State, county, city, or town, in aid of a railroad company, whereof the interest is to be paid by the company, the government tax of 3 percentum must be withheld, although neither bond nor coupon may express the liability of the company—such an arrangement being virtually an indorsement of the company's bonds by the said State, county, city, or town. Whether the interest is paid by the State, county, city, or town, and received from the railroad company, or paid directly by the company to the bondholders, is immaterial. In either case the managers of the company must account to the government for the tax. When bonds are issued by or in aid of a railroad company, the interest of which is made payable in a foreign country, such interest will not be subject to taxation under the 81st section of the Excise Tax.

THE COTTON QUESTION.

PROFESSOR LEONE LEVI ON THE COTTON TRADE.

Mr. LEVI, on the 20th of January, read a paper at a meeting of the Statistical Society of London, on the cotton trade. We extract from it the following: He observed, that of 6,300 factories in the United Kingdom, nearly the half of them were for cotton. Of 36,500,000 spindles, 30,000,000 were for cotton. Of 490,000 power looms, 399,000 were for cotton. Of 779,000 persons employed in factories, 450,000 were employed in cotton factories; and of £130,000,000, which constituted the total value of goods manufactured in the United Kingdom, nearly £50,000,000 was the value of the cotton manufacture. The amount of the cotton manufacture consumed in this country he estimated at upwards of £30,000,000, and the capital invested in it had been estimated at £100,000,000. Having shown the vast importance of the cotton trade and manufactures, and the large proportion it bears to the commerce of the kingdom, Mr. LEVI observed that it is self-evident that it becomes of the greatest importance to secure a continuous and sufficient supply of the raw material. The countries which used in ancient times to supply cotton to Europe have remained quite stationary in their production, whilst America has made gigantic strides. From a table representing the stock of cotton on the 31st of December, in each year, from 1835 to 1862, it appeared that while the exports during the year 1862 were less than 600,000,000 pounds, against 1,260,000,000 pounds in 1861, and 1,400,000,000 pounds in 1860, our consumption has also been reduced to 400,000,000 pounds, against 1,000,000,000 pounds in 1861, and 1,100,000,000 pounds in 1860, and our exports have also diminished to 230,000,000 pounds in 1862; but that the stock on hand on the 31st of December, 1862, was 184,000,000 pounds, against 294,000,000 pounds in 1861, and 250,000,000 pounds in 1860. As regards the importation, it was shown that from the United States we received in 1862 only 72,000 bales against 1,840,000 bales in 1861, and 2,579,000 bales in 1860, and from British India we received 1,073,000 bales against 986,000 bales in 1861, and 562,000 bales in 1860. The cotton district of the United States lies between the 30 and 36 degrees of latitude, extending from the Atlantic coast westerly through 20 degrees of longitude. From this belt of country, scarce 400 miles in width, but including within it the States of Louisiana, Texas, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, Florida, and Alabama, the vast American product is gathered, amounting in good seasons to near 4,000,000 bales. And but for the rebellion, which includes the entire district, the prosperity and increase of the last few years would have justified the belief that the annual yield would have been doubled. Should slavery be abolished, we might fairly anticipate an almost total cessation of cotton production in those States for years to come. But even should the Confederate States succeed in obtaining their independence and in strengthening their institutions, it was most likely that agriculture and other interests will feel the influence of the present rupture in

want of capital and want of spirit for large commercial operations. It must be remembered also that the home consumption of cotton in the United States is considerable, and that it already absorbs more than 20 per cent of the crop. South and Central America, including Brazil, Peru, Paraguay, etc., can do much to supply large quantities. Still, taking them altogether, it will be a long time ere they can furnish sufficient to make up for the enormous quantities we have been receiving from America. But, long as it may be, that time will come, and then, in all probability, we shall have double the quantity heretofore produced in the two continents. Nor will it be too much. The consumption has been sensibly increasing in late years, and will still further increase as civilization and comforts advance. And we may safely anticipate that, whatever be the quantity attainable, it will not be more than enough to meet the increasing demands for the population of the world.

INDIAN COTTON.

Before the interruption unhappily experienced in the supply of American cotton, Indian, from its less attractive qualities, was comparatively a drug in the market. Necessity, however, overcomes many objections—and perhaps it may also be added, to some little extent, prejudices in this case—and last year 697,862 bales of Indian cotton were taken into consumption, as compared with 356,495 bales in 1861; 168,263 bales in 1860; 177,393 bales in 1859; 319,574 bales in 1858; 377,706 bales in 1857; 267,028 bales in 1856; 276,487 bales in 1855; 208,164 bales in 1854, and 134,742 bales in 1553. It should be borne in mind, however, that the number of bales taken is not an exact criterion of the quantity of cotton consumed, as the Indian bale only weighs 375 pounds, while the American figures for 445 pounds.

The Calcutta correspondent of the *Times* writes:—"Cotton continues to pour down from the Northwest, and I hear that the prospects of the crop are now both better and worse than I formerly said; better in the Central Doab, where there will be an average yield; worse, especially on the right bank of Jumna—the cotton field proper—where, owing to storms, the failure has been considerable. The government of India has renewed its offer of prizes for the most and best cotton grown in 1862–3, and the Bombay government has appointed a commission to inquire into the adulteration of cotton, of which I wrote some three months ago. Sir Bartle Frere is showing great energy in Bombay, especially in the construction of roads, of which it has hitherto been more destitute than even Bengal."

Captain Ross D. Mangles has written a long letter to the *Times* on the supply of cotton from India, chiefly defending the Indian government, which he shows was not to blame because the ryots did not raise cotton continuously when the demand was only fitful. At present, encouraged by high prices and relieved from any imminent danger, at least, of being suddenly thrust out of the market by an influx from America, India asks only the time prescribed by nature for the growth of the crop to furnish Lancashire with a very large, if not complete, supply. A continuous demand at a sufficient price, which heretofore India has never had, will assuredly bring out the supply, and the cause will as certainly effect an improvement in the

quality of the indigenous article, and lead at the same time to an enlarged use of American seed.

Mr. LANG, the ex-Chancellor of the Exchequer for India, has addressed a letter to the *Times*, in which he points out what, so far as he can see, are the prospects of the cotton trade. He has no doubt that the quality of Indian cotton may be improved and that the quantity may be largely increased, but he contends that the average produce per acre cannot, under any circumstances, approach that of America. He estimates that, for the next twelve months, India might furnish from 1,250,000 to 1,500,000 bales, but after time to extend the cultivation and get over the fluctuations on the termination of the American war, we might expect "somewhere about 2,000,000 bales, with a permanent average price of 6d. per lb. for Indian cotton in Liverpool; and 1,000,000 of bales, more or less, for each 1d. per lb., more or less, in the price of the article. He thinks that if the struggle between the Northern and Southern States were to terminate to-morrow, "the result at which we should probably arrive in two or three years, after severe fluctuations, would be something like the following: Cotton consumption of the world 5,000,000 bales. Supply: America, 2,500,000 to 3,000,000 bales, at 6d. to 7d. per lb.; India, 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 bales, at 5d. to 6d. per lb.; the rest of the world, 500,000 to 1,000,000 bales."

THE STOCK OF COTTON.

The stock of cotton appears to be maintained with considerable steadiness at Liverpool, an equilibrium having been at last attained between the demand and the supply. Thus, the course of affairs to January 23, this year, has been as follows, as compared with the corresponding weeks of 1862 and 1861:

	1863.	1862.	1861.
Stock, January 1.....bales	392,460	622,600	545,679
" " 9.....	402,800	558,540	540,450
" " 16.....	395,030	566,790	519,870
" " 23.....	395,670	561,640	595,730

It should be borne in mind, however, that a larger proportion of the stock now held being East Indian, the bales of which weigh 70 pounds less each than American, the quantity on store at Liverpool is actually smaller than might at first sight be supposed. Thus, the last weekly totals were made up as follows:

	Stock, Jan. 23, 1863.	Stock, Jan. 24, 1862.
American.....bales	65,170	227,750
Surat.....	239,860	284,140
Brazil.....	37,850	35,526
Egyptian.....	34,890	12,830
West India.....	4,230	1,400
Other descriptions.....	13,670	...

These figures indicate a decided progress in the development of new sources of supply.

COTTON FROM BRAZIL.

In searching the world for supplies of cotton to fill the hiatus caused by the Southern blockade, the most hopeful parts have received scarcely any attention. Brazil is a magnificent country for cotton-growing. As long as the year 1856, Great Britain imported from Brazil nearly 22,000,000 pounds of this staple, of which about one-third was sent out from the port of Pernambuco. We are reminded of this fact by the arrival from the same part of the globe, of a considerable quantity of cotton at New York. Cotton culture in Brazil is yet in its infancy, but as the river and coast navigation is extended by the employment of steamers, and the interior is more intimately connected with the seaboard by the completion of lines of railway, we may confidently rely on a rapid increase of production. Among the new railroads wholly finished or in progress, is one from Bahia, one from Pernambuco, and two from Rio de Janeiro. The coastwise trade being now thrown open to foreign shipping, increased facilities will be enjoyed for concentrating at these points the products of the interior, and British and French capitalists will eagerly avail themselves of every new advantage. Brazilian trade, formerly engrossed by the United States to a large extent, is gradually slipping away from us through the efforts of more energetic rivals—Great Britain, supporting two distinct lines of first-class steamships, and France two, beside lines to Genoa, Hamburg, Belgium, and Portugal. From the year 1850, when Great Britain first established steam mail facilities, to 1855, she doubled a large trade of profitable exports, whereas before advantages were thus turned in her favor, the United States defied all competition. Thus we see that though geographically much nearer, and enjoying in a peculiar sense the favor of the Brazilian Government and people, and possessing a large variety of commodities adapted to a profitable exchange, we have allowed a rich trade to be diverted from us, and the Great Republic to be deprived of that commanding influence which it should exercise among the free governments of the Western continent.

Brazil is at the head of South American States. Since the establishment of the empire, in 1822, she has made substantial and unfaltering progress in all the elements of national greatness. The glowing description given by HADFIELD'S work on Brazil—published in London a few years ago—is fully deserved. He says:

"If once the tide of emigration begins to set fairly toward that immense agricultural field, watered by the rivers of South America, there is no foreseeing the extension of wealth and prosperity that must assuredly follow; for population is the sole requirement to fit these limitless and teeming regions to work out the destiny which it is impossible to doubt that Providence has designed for that portion of the earth, where the majesty and luxurience of nature invite the presence of man through highways at once the mightiest and most facile in the world."

Americans have not been wholly unmindful of their opportunities. In truth, American energy has been largely infused, directing in the construction of railways, encouraging manufactures, and stimulating trade. At St. Alexis, an American erected a cotton factory, the first in the province of Rio de Janeiro. All this is cause for congratulation. But if in past years the United States Government had engaged more earnestly in efforts for the establishment of steam mail lines, we should now enjoy that pre-eminence claimed by another, and be enabled to appropriate to ourselves the advan-

tages arising from the best cotton-growing region of the world beyond the limits of our country. Brazilian cotton is always good, commanding a higher price in the Liverpool market than the average from American plantations, and may yet contribute, in an essential degree, to relieve the embarrassment trade is suffering. Its culture will rapidly extend, should remunerative prices continue. During the past year an English house in Brazil is said to have cleared $1,500,000 in this trade, and still another has profited very largely.

On the return of peace, we may hope our relations with Brazil will receive proper attention.

COTTON-GROWING IN SENEGAL.

Accounts have been received in Paris from the French settlement in Senegal to the 28th of December. Several merchants had commenced cotton plantations on their own account, and others were about to imitate them. Cotton produced from seed sown in February last was gathered in November. The seasons are so regular in Senegal, that cotton growers do not find it necessary to irrigate their plantations. A number of farmers from Alsace had likewise arrived at Senegal to cultivate cotton, and had commenced operations. The French Government, in order to encourage the cultivation of cotton among the natives, had determined to place at the disposal of the chiefs of villages such instruments and machines as are best calculated for the cultivation and dressing of the cotton plant. The government has sent to Senegal an American ginning machine, with cylindrical saws and keys like those of a piano. This machine was sent out by the Minister of Marine, and a press is likewise expected at St. Louis. The ginning machine is hired out to the public for a trifling remuneration. It is stated that the cost of the carriage of raw cotton is diminished three-fourths by the use of this machine. The cultivation of cotton in Senegal is practised as it is in the Brazils—that is, by the cotton tree, which lasts from eight to ten years —while in the United States the cotton is sown every year, and is gathered from the month of July until the plant is killed by the frost. As it never freezes in Senegal, the cotton tree lives. Nevertheless, according as the tree grows old, the quality becomes deteriorated. On the other hand, the cultivation is less expensive and demands less care than the cotton cultivated in the United States. An objection was raised against the cultivation of cotton in Senegal on the ground that the negroes, accustomed to the cultivation of oil nuts (ground,) would not give up the cultivation of that crop with which they are acquainted for that of cotton, which is new to them. It is now ascertained, however, that the two crops, far from being injurious to each other, may be grown in the same plantation. In fact, while preparing the ground for the ground nut, which does not rise higher than trefoil, that cultivation prepares the ground for the cotton tree, which does no injury to the arachide. Rows of cotton plants may be sown in a field with ground nuts.

COTTON-GROWING IN THE RIVER PLATE PROVINCES.

On the subject of cotton cultivation the Buenos Ayres *Standard* says: "The cotton seed which we were so anxiously expecting has at last arrived, and it affords us sincere gratification to assure our friends in Manchester that the national government has at last determined to help us in the matter, and to afford us every assistance possible in the enterprise. We have been visited by several large property holders in Cordova, Catamares, Corrientes, Entre Rios, and Santa Fé, all of whom speak in the most confident terms as to the ultimate success of our efforts. In no country in the world does the cotton plant thrive so well as in this, but, owing to the low price of the raw material and the enormously heavy freights, the natives preferred sowing maize, which has a home consumption, to cotton, which nobody knew the use of."

COTTON FROM TURKEY.

The Smyrna *Mail* of the 31st of December last, after alluding to the interest attaching to the opening of the Smyrna and Aidin Railway Company, by means of which Ephesus is brought within ten days' journey of England, says: "But this is not the only advantage which has accrued from the opening of this railway so far; it has laid open a fertile tract of land capable of every cultivation, and adaptable more especially to that of cotton. The 12,000 bales of last year have augmented to above 60,000 this season, and will next season increase to above 100,000 bales, which shows not a small item for the capabilities of Asia Minor to supply cotton, considering the rude mode of cultivation hitherto adopted."

COTTON FROM JAMAICA.

Mr. Stephen Bourne, of the Jamaica Cotton Company's Office, states that there is now mountain land enough in Jamaica lying waste to give cotton to the extent of a million bales annually of far better quality than East Indian or American cotton. He says: "Why wait for government interference, or go 15,000 miles for that which may be procured within a month's sail or three weeks' steam of Liverpool?" It appears that strong efforts are being made to encourage the cultivation of cotton in Jamaica.

JOURNAL OF MINING, MANUFACTURES, AND ART.

LAKE SUPERIOR IRON.

We have made up the following from a report in a late number of the Lake Superior *Journal:*

The shipments for 1861 were small compared with the previous year, or the present, which grew out of the common derangement which existed in consequence of the attempted secession of a number of the States, and the civil war which it brought and is still upon us. If, however, double the amount had been put in the market, it would have sold, as business assumed its wonted vigor the last part of the year of 1861, and the demand for this staple was equal to that of any former period. The shipments the year just closed, would have been at least 50,000 more gross tons if the tonnage could have been had to move it. But with the Mississippi River closed, its demand to move the Western produce to the sea board via the lakes, occupied so much of it at such high rates, that it was impossible to obtain sufficient, at reasonable rates, to satisfy the popular demand. As it was, almost fabulous rates were paid—as high as five dollars per ton—to get a portion of this amount into market. Had the popular demand been fully supplied, it would have required an amount but little less than 200,000 tons.

The furnaces have also exceeded the product of last year. Until now, the manufacture of pig iron has had many difficulties to encounter. Facilities had to be created, experiments made, and the reputation of the iron established. All these have been in a good measure accomplished, the business reduced to a most thorough system, and, with the large demand for this metal, and the remunerative price it now brings, the furnaces will give a good account of themselves in the future. With the facilities they now enjoy, their product in 1863 will reach 12,000 gross tons.

Both the ore and the pig iron business were never in a better condition than at this time. The mines are all—those which are worked—well opened, so that any desired amount can be mined; the demand is very large, so that with the *ways* and *means* to place it in the market, the amount will increase each year at the rate of from 50,000 to 100,000 tons.

The following tables show the shipments of iron ore and pig iron from 1850 to 1863:

SHIPMENTS OF IRON ORE.

	Jackson Iron Co.	Cleveland Iron Co.	Lake Superior Iron Co.	Total.
1855 .....tons	....	1,447	....	1,447
1856.....	4,497	7,100	....	11,587
1857.....	13,912	12,272	....	26,184
1858.....	11,104	19,931	....	31,035
1859.....	10,662	30,344	24,668	65,679
1860.....	41,286	42,696	33,016	116,998
1861.....	12,919	7,311	25,200	45,430
1862.....	42,767	35,244	37,710	115,721
Total amount shipped to date.....				414,091

PRODUCTS OF PIG IRON.

	Pioneer Iron Co.	Collins Iron Co.	Forest Iron Co.	Northern Iron Co.	Value per ton.
1858	1,627	....	....	....	$25
1859	4,683	2,575	....	....	25
1860	3,560	1,950	....	150	25
1861	2,580	2,060	2,430	900	23
1862	1,438	2,207	2,802	2,143	35

RECAPITULATION.

	Ore.	Pig.	Total value.
1855.....gross tons	1,447	....	$14,470
1856	11,597	....	92,776
1857	26,184	....	209,472
1858	31,035	1,627	249,269
1859	65,679	7,258	575,521
1860	116,998	5,660	736,490
1861	45,430	7,970	410,460
1862	115,721	8,590	994,976

THE FIRST METAL PLATED SHIP.

At a meeting some months since of the Archæological Society of London, Capt. Windus, of the Navy, read an account of a remarkable carrack or war galley, equipped by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, and described by Bosio, the historian of the Order, which had been plated with sheet lead as a defense against bullets. This vessel was built at Nice, in A. D. 1530, and made one of the great squadron sent by the Emperor Charles V., against Tunis, to assist the dethroned Muley Hassan against Barbarossa. The celebrated Andrew Dorias commanded the expedition, and after a few days Tunis was taken by storm. This metallic clad galley was called the Santa Anna, and aided greatly in taking the city. She had six decks, consequently was larger than the Merrimac. Her crew consisted of 500 men.

A NOVELTY IN QUARRYING.

An instrument for boring into hard rock, made out of a tube furnished with a circular cutter of rough diamonds, is now being employed in France. It is caused to revolve, and, as it enters the stone, the cutter scoops out a cylinder, which is afterwards easily taken out of the tube. Holes in hard granite, for blasting purposes, two inches diameter and four feet deep, are thereby bored in one hour. This would require two days' work in the ordinary way. The diamonds, when examined through a magnifying glass, do not look at all injured.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES AT BOSTON.

The arrivals at Boston from foreign ports for ten years past have been as follows:

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
1862.....	191	309	694	1,807	3,001
1861.....	187	391	713	1,547	2,838
1860.....	187	359	866	1,879	3,291
1859.....	248	381	811	1,619	3,089
1858.....	171	324	764	1,488	2,747
1857.....	246	391	759	1,509	2,905
1856.....	241	351	723	1,377	2,692
1855.....	227	326	849	1,682	3,084
1854.....	246	395	883	1,567	3,091
1853.....	203	333	882	1,566	2,984

The foreign clearances have been as follows:

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
1862.....	118	273	724	1,804	2,919
1861.....	129	294	699	1,609	2,731
1860.....	122	359	850	1,907	3,238
1859.....	177	380	757	1,572	2,886
1858.....	139	302	722	1,503	3,066
1857.....	214	359	671	1,569	2,813
1856.....	210	357	755	1,618	2,940
1855.....	193	398	948	1,759	3,298
1854.....	233	394	873	1,671	3,171
1853.....	160	372	912	1,629	3,073

Besides the above, 29 steamers have arrived during the year, and 27 have cleared.

The coastwise arrivals and the clearances, as far as known, as many are not entered at the custom-house, have been as follows:

	Arrivals.	Clearances.		Arrivals.	Clearances.
1862.....	6,273	2,451	1857.....	5,740	2,597
1861.....	6,741	5,411	1856.....	5,971	3,055
1860.....	8,892	2,921	1855.....	6,271	3,268
1859.....	8,415	2,958	1854.....	6,480	3,451
1858.....	6,354	2,525	1853.....	5,904	3,277

TONNAGE OF NEW YORK.

The statement of tonnage of the port of New York for 1862, as made up from the official records at the custom-house, shows an increase, both in the number of arrivals and clearances, over every preceding year. In the American tonnage there is, of course, considerable decrease, owing to the

fact that a large number of vessels have changed their nationalities, while American bottoms have in a great measure been neglected, in consequence of the great risk of capture by the Confederate privateers, in addition to which a large proportion of American vessels have been employed by government. The total number of arrivals from foreign ports was 5,406, comprising a total tonnage of 2,552,481½. Of this number 2,693 were American vessels, representing a tonnage of 1,472,989½, against 3,034 vessels and a tonnage of 1,618,258 in 1861. The increase in the number of clearances is relatively the same. The number of American vessels was 2,202, and of foreign 2,814, making 5,016 vessels, and representing a tonnage of 2,487,852½. Considering the fact that the country has been involved in a colossal civil war during the entire year, the result is certainly astonishing; yet the "Commerce of New York," previously published, prepared the public for some such result. Annexed are the entries and clearances since 1857, inclusive:

ENTRIES AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS.

	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.	Seamen.
American vessels	2,693	1,472,989½	39,762
Foreign vessels	2,713	1,079,492	42,055
Total entered in 1862	5,406	2,552,431½	81,817
" in 1861	4,977	2,483,704½	78,264
" in 1860	4,346	2,164,601½	72,510
" in 1859	3,905	1,899,851½	64,522
" in 1858	3,421	1,693,871½	56,645
" in 1857	3,851	1,971,004½	65,758

CLEARED AT NEW YORK FOR FOREIGN PORTS.

	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.	Seamen.
American vessels	2,202	1,281,722	34,543
Foreign vessels	2,814	1,206,130½	42,403
Total cleared in 1862	5,016	2,487,852½	77,036
" in 1861	4,608	2,388,766½	74,925
" in 1860	3,812	1,970,997½	66,750
" in 1859	3,253	1,584,188½	56,537
" in 1858	2,851	1,380,295½	48,728
" in 1857	2,947	1,622,707½	53,097

The number of coastwise entries and clearances for the year—according to custom-house records—is as follows:

	Entered coastwise.		Cleared coastwise	
	No. of vessels.	Tons.	No. of vessels.	Tons.
1862	1,382	477,010	2,302	619,807
1861	1,240	393,024	2,905	592,919
1860	1,571	529,015	4,908	1,902,508
1859	1,838	572,232	4,698	1,726,993
1858	1,559	499,138	4,331	1,646,473
1857	1,569	503,679	4,182	1,425,810

In view of the continued interruption of the coastwise trade, no idea of it can be formed from these figures—especially as vessels are not by law required to enter and clear at the custom-house, except they have either foreign or certain specified domestic merchandise on board.

PACIFIC OCEAN.

We find in the *London Nautical Magazine* the following reports of shoals, important to navigators.

The first is as follows, lying to the north of Isabel Island, the principal of the Solomon Group, dangerous to shipping and new to the chart under the name of the Lass Shoal.

The brig *Wailua*, Lass, October 11th, 1861, discovered a shoal in lat. 7° 45′ S., long. 159° 54′ E., about half a mile wide, and in length as far as could be seen from the mast-head; it stands N.W. and S.E. We passed over it and found 11 fathoms water. About one and-a-half miles from where we were, the water had a milky appearance, and think that a vessel passing over there would be likely to strike. Did not find this shoal on any of my charts, therefore ships passing that way will require to keep a sharp look out. At the place where we went over, the rocks were plainly visible under the vessel.

The next by the same vessel is off the N.E. coast of New Guinea. The account says:—

October 28th, lat. 5° 40′ S., long. 146° 18′ E., during the night we discovered another shoal, not down on our charts. It is situated between Rooke and Lotten Islands, and is about half a mile in circumference, and is covered with trees.

The position given places it near the Astrolabe Gulf, but just within the coast line about Point Iris. We therefore preserve the record for future reference. The Lotten Island is Dampier's Rocky Island, called Lottin by D'Urville. The charts of these parts, however, are yet in a very imperfect condition, and especially that portion bounded by the Admiralty Islands, New Ireland, New Britain, and New Guinea, that appears to abound in detached shoals and small islands, of the positions and contour of which we are yet very uncertain. The following from the same vessel as the preceding is also new to the chart, and must have presented an interesting spectacle to the crew of the *Wailua*. The account says:—

November 5th, discovered another shoal to the westward of New Britain, N.W. of Nord Island, five miles off shore. This shoal is about half a mile wide, and five miles long, having the appearance of a half moon. We lowered a boat and examined it, finding about 10 feet water thereon. On approaching this shoal the man at the mast-head cried,—"There she blows!" but on nearing it we discovered it to be a boiling spring, constantly emitting water about 150 feet in the air, and on first sighting this it had just the appearance of a whale spouting. This spring can be seen about twenty miles off.

Such scenes are highly interesting, but are to be expected in a sea over a volcanic bed that will throw up a cone like Lottin Island, above 3,000 feet in height, in which the volcanic principle is evidently at work by the emission of smoke, and a large hollow on its N.E. side, the remains of an ancient crater. There is abundance of work here for the nautical surveyor.

NOVA SCOTIA, SOUTH-EAST COAST.

The following description of shoals recently discovered in Shelburne Harbor, on the S.E. coast of Nova Scotia, is by Captain Shortland, R.N., 1862.

Middle Rock, in the channel approaching Shelburne, is a small rocky patch of 2½ fathoms, low water springs, with the remarkable boulder on Surf Point bearing W.b.N. ½ N., six cables, and Sand Point N.b.W. rather less than a mile. It is about half way between the North end of MacNutt's Island and Sand Point northward of it, a 3 fathom shoal extending out to it half a mile from the eastern shore, the rock forming its outer extreme. The depth at a cable west from the rock is 5 fathoms.

Hero Shoal is a small rocky patch of 2½ fathoms (replaced on the chart by H.M.S. *Hero* in 1862), S.W., rather more than half a mile from the southermost wharf of Shelburne, and about one-third across from the western to the eastern shore, with the tower of the northernmost church in Shelburne on with a white house on the high land northeastward of the town, bearing N.E. ½ N. At a cable eastward of the shoal there are 6 fathoms water, and between the shoal and the western shore 3½ and 4 fathoms.

The tower of the southermost church in Shelburne on with the white house on the high land N.E. of the town, bearing N.E. ½ N. leads a cable eastward of the shoal.

NOTICES TO MARINERS BY SUPERINTENDENT A. D. BACHE.

The following Notices to Mariners have been given by the Superintendent of the U.S.C. survey, A. D. BACHE.

In the approaches to Newport Harbor, Rhode Island, two rocks have been discovered by HENRY MITCHELL, Assistant U.S. Coast Survey.

No. 1. Is about 700 yards west from the Poor House on Coaster's Harbor Island, and 375 yards N.b.E. from red buoy No. 6. It is about one acre in extent, with 17 feet shoalest at mean low water. At the lowest spring tides there will probably not be less than 15½ feet over it.

It is nearly mid channel in the northern passage. To clear it, hug closely the bold shore of Coaster's Harbor Island.

2. Is nearly on the line between the Rose Island Spindle, about 325 yards from it, and Goat Island Lighthouse. It has two sharp peaks N.W. and S.E., 14½ feet on the outer at mean low water. West of this rock the depth is 5 fathoms; to the northward, 7 fathoms; to the eastward, 8 fathoms; and to the southward, 7 fathoms water. It is outside of the line from Rose Island Spindle to buoy No. 3. To clear it keep the Goat Island side of the channel.

Shoal on the Coast of Maryland.—The *Baltic*, drawing 18½ feet water, Captain J. J. COMSTOCK, is reported to have run aground on a shoal about two and-a-half miles due East from Winter Quarter Shoal, about eleven miles from the coast of Maryland. It is not laid down on the charts, but will be surveyed as soon as possible.

APPLIANCES FOR SAVING LIFE FROM SHIPWRECK ON THE COASTS OF DENMARK.

A notice to mariners by the Danish government states that at various places on the coast of North Jutland and on the island of Bornholm, life-

boats are stationed for the saving of lives from shipwreck, furnished with the necessary apparatus for the purpose.

The stations are the following, viz.:—

I.—On the western coast of North Jutland.

Skagen*†	Klitmoller*†	Vederso Klit*†
Kandestederne*†	Nordre Vorupore*†	Sondervig†
Hirtshals*†	Orum Strand*†	Sonder Lyndvig*†
Lonstrup*†	Vester Agger*†	Haurvig†
Lokken*†	Agger Kanal*	Bjerregaard†
Blockhusene*†	Thyboe Ron†	Nyminegab*
Slette Strand*†	Flyvholm*†	Hennestrand†
Thorup Strand*†	Ferring†	Blaavandshuk*†
Lild Strand*†	Tuskjar*†	Rindby Fano*
Handstedholme*†	Bjerehuse†	

II.—On the eastern coast of North Jutland.

Aalbek*†

III.—On the isle of Bornholm.

Allinge†	Svanike†	Ronne*†
Gudhjem†	Snogebœk*†	

If communication with a stranded vessel in no other way can be effected, a nine yarn line will be thrown to the shipwrecked men by the aid of a rocket apparatus; hauling on board this line, a 3½ inch hawser will follow, at the end of which a block is made fast, in which is the bight of a thin line. Both ends of this line are made fast on the life-chair, that with its thimble travels on the 3½ inch hawser. The hawser must be made fast on board the ship as high as possible, in order that the chair, if possible, may clear the surf. By the aid of the thin line, that passes through the block, made fast on the hawser on board, the chair can be hauled to and fro from the beach, and thus the communication for the saving of the crew is effected.

FIRST CARGO OF TEA FROM JAPAN.

The bark Benefactor, Captain Berry, which arrived the past month, from Yokohama (Bay of Yeddo), brings the first cargo of teas imported into New York from Japan since the opening of trade with that country. Hitherto the teas and silks of Japan have found their way to the Atlantic States via China, where the teas have been refired and repacked. The Benefactor's cargo has been prepared in Yokohama, with special reference to its sale in the American market, the firing and repacking being superintended by Chinese, sent to Japan for the purpose. The tea of Japan resembles the finest green tea of China, known as Moyune, differing chiefly in this, that it is perfectly *pure* and free from all coloring matter. While the Japan tea is not deficient in strength, it has a delicacy and softness of flavor which has already made it very popular.

The Benefactor and cargo are consigned to Messrs. A. A. Low & Brothers, and the teas will be offered for sale in a few days. She has besides a quantity of raw silk, said to be of the finest quality.

Two pheasants, put on board by the American minister at Japan, and intended for the Central Park, died the other side of Cape of Good Hope.

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* Lifeboat. † Rocket apparatus for carrying a line.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

ECONOMY AND LIBERALITY.

There is scarcely any virtue that requires more strength of character for its practice than systematic economy. To spend money is the easiest thing in the world, and even a fool can throw it away. But always to count the cost before a purchase is made, so that both ends may meet at the close of the year, (often called by the spendthrift meanness,) is really the best evidence of honesty and true bravery. Yet we have seen men even laugh at the idea of trying to save a dollar; were you however to follow these same individuals through the year, you would find nine out of every ten cheating "the butcher, the baker, and the candle-stick maker" out of the amounts they justly owed them. Set it down then as a fixed fact that no man except the very few of independent fortunes can promptly pay his honest debts without being frugal and saving.

But the particular idea we wished at this time to enforce was, that, among men in ordinary circumstances, there can *be no true liberality without proper economy*. This proposition is as clear as noon-day, and yet the world's judgment is not regulated by it. We see a man give a hundred, five hundred, or a thousand dollars to some charitable object and call it liberality, while another refuses to give and we set that down as meanness, without in either instance inquiring into the facts or circumstances. In the one case the five hundred dollars may be given by the spendthrift who never meets an obligation promptly, but likes the show and reputation of giving, while in the other case systematic charity in an unostentatious way may be the rule of life. *Show* liberality we think is a very cheap commodity. The money given does good, (and so far we like it,) but there is no heart, no self-denial, no *true* liberality in it.

The mere fact then that one gives largely, or has the reputation of doing so, is no proof that he is truly liberal or generous, any more than is the fact that a man practises strict economy, and only gives when he can afford to, proof of his meanness. Always remember this, that it is only the prudent who can afford to give, and distrust therefore the liberality of one who is not frugal and saving. To be free with others money, to give largely out of what one needs to pay one's debts, is neither generous nor Christian.

We would say then to all, do not be afraid to economize, or to have it known that you are economical; for that fear only exists in the mind of the snob or the swindler. And further, if you meet one who ridicules the idea of practising economy, and yet has the reputation of being a *generous* fellow, avoid him as you would a pestilence, for ten to one he will cheat you; perhaps borrow and forget to return it, and abuse you unmercifully when you request him to refund. A man who will not economize will not pay his debts; and a man who will not economize cannot afford to be liberal.

HUMAN HAIR AS AN ARTICLE OF TRAFFIC.

Few persons are probably aware of the extent to which the traffic in human hair is carried. It has been ascertained that the London hair-merchants alone import annually no less a quantity than five tons. But

the market would be very inadequately supplied if dependence were solely placed on chance clippings. There must be a regular harvest, which can be looked forward to at a particular time; and as there are different markets for black tea and green tea, for pale brandy and brown brandy, so is there a light-haired market distinct from the dark-haired.

The light hair is exclusively a German product. It is collected by the agents of a Dutch company who visit England yearly for orders. Until about fifty years ago, light hair was esteemed above all others. One peculiar golden tint was so supremely prized, that the dealers only produced it to favorite customers, to whom it was sold at eight shillings an ounce, or nearly double the price of silver. The rich and silk-like texture of this treasured article had its attractions for poets and artists as well as traders. "Shakspeare especially," says one of our authorities, "seems to have delighted in golden hair." "Her sunny locks hung on her temples like the golden fleece;" as Bassanio describes Portia in the *Merchant of Venice.* Again, in the *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, Julia says of Sylvia and herself; "Her hair is auburn, mine is perfect yellow."..... Black hair he only mentions twice throughout his entire plays, clearly showing that he imagined light hair to be the peculiar attribute of soft and delicate women.

A similar partiality for this color, touched with the sun, runs, however, through the great majority of the poets, old Homer himself for one; and the best painters have seized, with the same instinct, upon golden tresses. A walk through any gallery of old masters will instantly settle this point. There is not a single female head in the National Gallery, beginning with those glorious studies of heads, the highest ideal of female beauty by such an idealist as Correggio, and ending with the full-blown blondes of the prodigal Rubens—there is not a single black-haired female head amongst them.

But all this has passed away; the dark brown hair of France now rules the market. It is the opinion of those who have the best right to offer one on such a subject, that the color of the hair of the English people has deepened in tint within the last fifty years, and that this change is owing to the more frequent intermarriages, since the Napoleonic wars, with nations nearer to the sunny south. Whether dark or light, however, the hair purchased by the dealer is so closely scrutinized, that he can discriminate between German and the French article by the smell alone; nay, he even claims the power, "when his nose is in," of distinguishing accurately between the English, the Welsh, the Irish, and the Scotch commodities. The French dealers are said to be able to detect the difference between the hair "raised" in two districts of Central France, not many miles apart, by tokens so slight as would baffle the most learned of our naturalists and physiologists.

Black hair is imported chiefly from Brittany and the south of France, where it is annually collected by the agents of a few wholesale Parisian houses. The average crops—we scorn the imputation of a pun—harvested by these firms, amount yearly to upwards of two hundred thousand pounds' weight. The price paid for each head of hair ranges from one to five francs, according to it weight and beauty; the former seldom rising above a pound, and seldom falling below twelve onces. The itinerant dealers are always provided with an extensive assortment of ribbons, silks, laces, haberdashery, and cheap jewelry of various kinds, with which

they make their purchases as frequently as with money. They attend all the fairs and merrymakings within their circuit, and the singularity and novelty of their operations are wont to strike travelers more than anything else which meets their notice. "In various parts of the motley crowd," says one who had stopped to stare his fill at one of the Breton fairs, "there were three or four different purchasers of this commodity, who travel the country for the purpose of attending the fairs and buying the tresses of the peasant-girls," who seem, indeed, to bring the article to market as regularly as peas or cabbages. "They have particularly fine hair," he continues, "and frequently in the greatest abundance. I should have thought that female vanity would have effectually prevented such a traffic as this being carried to any extent. But there seemed to be no difficulty in finding possessors of beautiful heads of hair perfectly willing to sell. We saw several girls sheared, one after the other, like sheep, and as many more standing ready for the sheers, with their caps in their hands, and their long hair combed out and hanging down to their waists. Some of the operators were men, some women. By the side of the dealers was placed a large basket, into which every successive crop of hair, tied up into a wisp by itself, was thrown." As far as personal beauty is concerned, the girls do not lose much by losing their hair; for it is the fashion in Brittany to wear a close cap, which entirely prevents any part of the *chevelure* from being seen, and of course as totally conceals the want of it. The hair thus obtained is transmitted to the wholesale houses, by whom it is dressed, sorted, and sold to the hair-workers in the chief towns, at about ten francs per pound. The portion of the crop most suitable for perukes is purchased by a particular class of persons, by whom it is cleaned, curled, prepared to a certain stage, and sold to the perukeiers at a greatly advanced price—it may be forty, or it may be eighty francs per pound. Choice heads of hair, like choice old pictures, or choice old china, have, however, no limit to the price they may occasionally command.

PROSPECTS OF EMIGRATION.

The emigration to this port in January was nearly three times that of the corresponding month of 1862. From this fact some people conclude that there is to be a decided increase in the number of emigrants this year over that of last. Comparisons between the emigration for corresponding months in different years, usually give a fair idea of the prospective increase or decrease of the number of arrivals. But in the case referred to, the general rule fails. The prevalence of mild weather and of easterly winds clearly accounts for the large influx of emigrants last month. There is nothing to indicate that there will be this year any greater emigration than in 1862; and people who are holding meetings to remonstrate against any extra importation of laborers at this time only throw away their time and labor. The continuance of the war deters emigration, especially from Germany. Emigration from England is also powerfully affected by the same cause. But no amount of calamity and misfortune operates to prevent the Irish residents from sending over to the old country fo. their friends; and the friends thus sent for are always happy to come. If there is any increase in the emigration this year over that of last, it will be from Ireland.

NATIONAL EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

According to the 28th report of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, for the year 1861, it appears that at the close of the year 1861 the number of schools in operation was 5,830. The average daily attendance of pupils for the same period was 284,726, and the average number on the rolls for the same year was 531,014; while the total number of distinct children at any time on the rolls for the year was 803,364. As compared with the year 1860, there is an increase of 198 in the number of schools in operation for the year 1861. The total number of pupils on the rolls has decreased by 636; but the average number on the rolls has increased by 20,376; whilst the increase in the average daily attendance amounts to 21,903. The increase in these latter numbers indicate an improvement in the regularity of the pupils' attendance during the past year; but it is not expected that the total number on the rolls will much vary from the 800,000—or one-seventh of the population—yearly receiving the benefits of the system.

RECEIPTS OF INTERNAL REVENUE.

The following are the total amounts of internal revenue tax, exclusive of receipts from corporation salaries and stamps, received by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue from the collectors of the several States to January 31, 1863:—

Maine	$13,063	Virginia	$4,715
New Hampshire	76,000	Kentucky	267,010
Vermont	67,662	Missouri	427,000
Massachusetts	1,250,250	Ohio	847,580
Rhode Island	105,000	Indiana	169,995
Connecticut	450,000	Illinois	367,742
New York	2,225,259	Michigan	142,103
New Jersey	325,435	Wisconsin	120,575
Pennsylvania	1,353,783	Iowa	50,000
Delaware	22,000	Minnesota	8,017
Maryland	312,143	California	280,115
Dist. of Columbia	46,046		
Total			$9,067,538

PEA-NUTS IN CALIFORNIA.

One of the San Francisco papers (the *Mercantile Gazette*, we believe,) says that some 10,000 pounds of pea-nuts were raised in Yole and Sacramento counties during the last year; 8,000 pounds of which were purchased by a firm in this city. Had it not been for the floods there probably would have been over 20,000 pounds produced. The first lot of pea-nuts raised in this State, came into market about three years ago. Their cultivation has been so successful that it is probable the importation of them will entirely cease within the next two years. Dealers purchase them of the producer at 20 cents a pound, and wholesale them at 25 cents.

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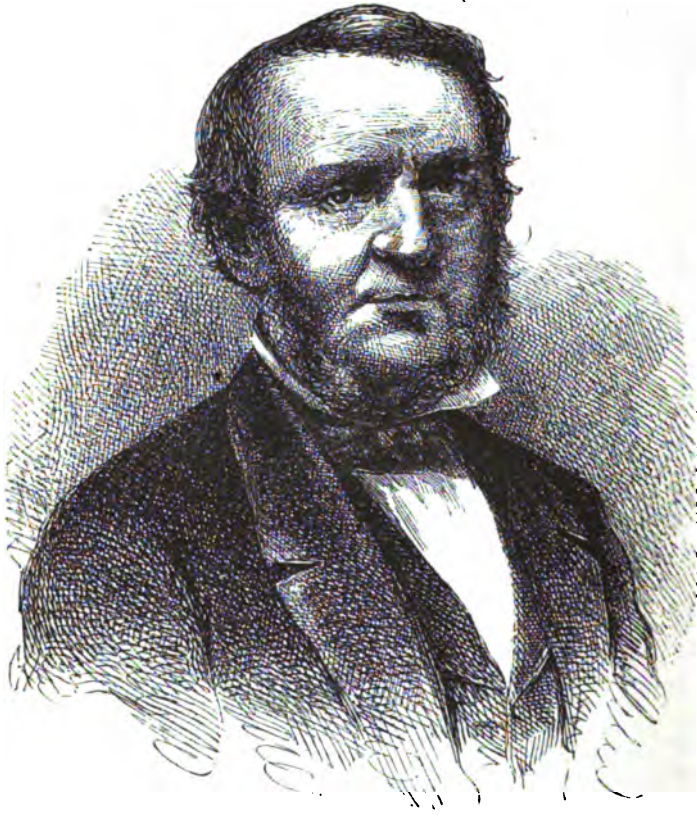

FRANCIS W. EDMONDS.

THE

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COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1863.

THE PAST AND FUTURE OF THE WEST.

THE EFFECT OF THIS WAR ON THE MISSISSIPPI—THE WEST AS THE CENTER OF MANUFACTURES.

The census returns for 1860, compared with those of 1850 and 1840, furnish most interesting evidence respecting the actual and relative growth of the different sections of our country. In contemplating, however, this progress for the last ten years, the observer is especially struck with the fact that the West, wonderfully gifted by nature, has been receiving contributions to her wealth from all sections of the Union, and even from the whole world, until now she is returning the gift a thousand-fold. A flood of emigrants from the Eastern States, and from Europe, accompanied by a stream of capital for the construction of railroads and other internal improvements, have been poured on to its rich lands, making almost all portions accessible, and furnishing cheap transportion to market. Thus the vast material wealth of the whole region, mining and agricultural, has been, as it were, tapped by a hundred avenues, and flowed eastward in multiplying streams to feed the nation's commerce and add to the nation's wealth. The present seems to have confirmed what the sagacious had before discovered—that the West contained within its teeming bosom all the elements of future opulence and power, far in excess of that of any other known country. Food, climate, minerals, metals, water carriage—all are within reach, and we may therefore confidently expect that another census will tell the story of one more progressive step taken, and the West will have become not only the granary of the world, but the seat of manufactures for this continent at least.

Let us look a moment at the past. The growth of California has always been considered by many as unprecedented, and yet with all her

gold and silver her attractions have not proved more seductive to enterprising settlers than the wealth of the West. Thus, in 1850, the fame of the latter State had attracted to it 92,597 persons, and Wisconsin then numbered 305,000. In 1860 California had gained 292,173, and Wisconsin 463,485. By the following table will be seen at a glance the relative increase in the *free* population of the different sections of the United States since 1790:*

	South.	North.	West.	Immigration in 10 years.
1790.....	1,271 692	1,902,475	.....	.....
1800.....	1,702,980	2,551.585	49,470	.....
1810.....	2,208,785	3,383,259	268,870	.....
1820.....	2,842,340	4,225,692	783,679	150,000
1830.....	3,660,758	5,407,170	1,454,127	128,502
1840.....	4,632,640	6,616,761	2,738,317	538,381
1850.....	6,221,868	8,476,709	4,854,517	1,427,337
1860.....	8,625,182	10,580,840	8,567,249	2,444,624

These figures show the curious fact that the population of the West has nearly doubled every ten years, and in the last ten years the white population of the South increased more than that of the North; doubtless owing to the fact that the West derived a large portion of its 3,700,000 of increase from the Northern and Eastern States. The census of 1860 has not given the nativities of the population. That of 1850 gave the Western population as follows:

Persons in the Western States born there.....	2,501,633
" " " born South.....	660,142
" " " born East.....	1,090,814
" " " born foreign.....	601,928
Total population.....	4,854,519

There were also 57,296 born West living at the South, and 19,696 born West living at the East. Of the population of the Northeastern States at the same time, 1,292,241 persons were born abroad, and 1,090,814 natives of the Eastern States migrated to the West, and 337,765 to the South; making 1,428,579 emigrants South and West, whose places in the East were supplied by 1,292,241 of the "pauper labor" of Europe. In the ten years which have elapsed since that census the West has gained 3,700,000 persons. The immigration into the Union during the same period was 2,444,624, which, with its natural increase deducted from the whole number, leaves 24,928,271 as the population of the United States by natural increase alone from 1850, being at the rate of 25 per cent in ten years, or 2½ per cent per annum. The Northern population in the same time increased 25 per cent, the Southern 38 per cent,

* The Southern section includes fourteen States, Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, Texas, Missouri, Mississippi, Kentucky, Arkansas, Tennessee, Florida. The North embraces the New England States, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey. The West, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, Utah, Nebraska, California, Oregon, Washington, New Mexico, Minnesota, Colorado, Dakota, Nevada.

and the Western 77 per cent. Thus, the Northern population held its own, while that of the South increased 13 per cent by immigration, and the West 52 per cent by immigration. In other words, the West gained in the last ten years, besides her natural increase, 2,500,000 persons, who moved upon her soil with their wealth. If the wealth thus obtained were estimated at $1,000 per family of five, the amount would be $500,000,000 of capital which has been carried thither by individuals to employ in developing the immense natural resources of that portion of our country. In the same period there have been built at the West 3,656 miles of railroad, at a cost of $254,720,364, mostly by Eastern or imported capital. The Illinois Central Railroad alone sent into Illinois $30,000,000, and employed for some years 10,000 hands in building a road which enabled the Federal Government to sell $11,000,000 worth of land, and the company to sell $20,000,000 more to actual settlers, making over $61,000,000 concentrated in that State by the operations of one company. Other undertakings produced like results, but the chief effect has been, by combining the newly acquired labor with the prolific soil, to produce the wonderful supply of wealth which the following figures indicate. If we compare two States, Illinois and Wisconsin, the results are as follows:

	Miles of railroad.		Grain receipts at Chicago.
	Illinois.	Wisconsin.	
1852	148	20	5,873,141
1853	193	50	6,412,181
1854	1,200	200	12,932,320
1855	1,884	240	16,333,700
1856	2,241	285	21,583,221
1857	2,571	559	18,032,678
1858	2,678	793	20,035,166
1859	2,774	838	21,736,147
1860	2,811	951	36,504,000
1861	2,910	962	47,696,409
Total bushels ten years			158,544,554

This grain at an average price of 66 cents per bushel, the average value for 1860 at Chicago, would be worth $126,000,000, thus exceeding by $31,000,000 the cost of the railroads, through the agency of which the grain was made available. The entire value of the imports into Chicago for 1860 was $97,067,616. In 1861 the quantity of grain increased to 47,696,409 bushels, the Southern route being closed, and in 1862 the amount was 60,150,390 bushels. These figures but indicate the extent of that prosperity which has developed so rapidly during the last ten years in the northern sections of the West. So, too, the lines of railroad that tend South have poured streams of produce into the bosoms of the river cities, such as St. Louis and Cincinnati, and made them what they now are.

But the great natural outlets of the West are its magnificent rivers, which spread their broad arms East and West traversing hundreds of miles, and carrying their accumulated burdens to the Mississippi to find an outlet in the Gulf of Mexico. These are the great arteries of trade which confer wealth upon the Western producer, by cheapening the cost of transportation, and thus enabling his products to compete with others in the markets of the world. Ever since the purchase of Louisiana, and

the opening of the Mississippi River to Western produce, a constantly widening sphere has been given to the industrial enterprise which has sought the Western States. After the creation of the Western territories from the lands ceded to the Federal Government by the State of Virginia the population west of the mountains did not increase rapidly. In 1800 the number had reached but 49,470 persons. The only outlet for produce at that time was to follow the downward course of the streams to New Orleans. But both banks of the Mississippi as high as the Yazoo River being held by Spain, Americans were prohibited the use of this outlet. In 1795, however, Spain, by treaty, granted the free navigation of the Mississippi, with right of deposit at New Orleans for three years, reserving to herself the right at the end of the three years to continue this privilege, or name some other place of deposit on the banks of the river. In 1800, by the treaty of St. Ildefonso, Spain retroceded to France her old colony of Louisiana. That colony had been settled by France, and remained in her possession until 1762, when it was transferred to Spain, but in 1800, as stated above, was restored to France. Spain, however, continued in possession, and in October, 1802, withdrew from the United States the right of deposit at New Orleans without assigning any other depot. The mode of travel then among the settlers, who were all located on the banks of the great streams, was to construct immense flat boats designed only to go down stream, there to be broken up and sold for lumber. These boats freighted with produce required a place of deposit, without which the voyage was of no avail. When, therefore, the lower Mississippi was closed, thus destroying the whole trade of the West, an intense excitement followed. Expeditions were formed to open the river by force, and war was imminent. In this state of affairs the purchase of the country became imperative, and in January, 1803, Congress voted $2,000,000 to set on foot a negotiation; at that moment, General Victor, by order of the 1st Consul, with a large French force was about to sail from Holland to take possession. But he was blockaded by the British, and Bonaparte seeing the impossibility of the expedition, received favorably Messrs. Munroe and Livingston on their arrival, and April 30th sold them the province of Louisiana for $15,000,000. The difficulties that grew out of the cession, in relation to boundaries with Spain, were protracted many years, and it was not until 1812 that the people of the territory were admitted into the Union in accordance with the terms of the treaty of cession. This transaction gave rise to the greatest excitement, as all are aware—Massachusetts even threatening to secede if the annexation was carried out, and Mr. Jefferson being decidedly of the opinion that the State could not be admitted without an amendment to the Constitution. The vote on the admission however was 79 to 23, the opposition being entirely on constitutional grounds.

Soon after Louisiana was thus obtained, the great want of the West made its appearance in the shape of steam. The flat boats were indeed improved upon by keel boats, for the purpose of ascending the streams. The boatman was compelled to stand on the gunwale, at the extreme bow, and thrusting a long pole into the mud, placed his shoulder against the top, walked aft, thus impelling the boat forward. It required four months to travel, in this manner, 1,500 miles from New Orleans to St. Louis. In 1811 Fulton built a steamboat at Pittsburg. The era of improvement was thus opened. In 1815, St. Louis was reached from New Orleans in twenty-five days, and the subsequent progress was as follows:

1810, New Orleans to St. Louis, by flat boat....	120	days.		
1815, Steamer Enterprise.....	25	"		
1823, " time.....	12	"		
1826, " Gen. Brown.....	9	"	12	hours.
1828, " "	9	"	4	"
1860, " running time	3	"		

These figures show not only diminished time of passage, but they speak of immense additional resource-capital that was formerly locked up four months in a flat boat being now turned over forty times in the same period.

Now the Western waters are, or we should say at the breaking out of this war were, alive with steam tonnage, which carried forth the produce of the West, and returned with sugar, coffee, cotton, rice, tobacco, and merchandise of every description. The steam tonnage at the leading cities is as follows:

	Tons.		Tons.
New Orleans.....	84,300	Nashville.....	4,595
St. Louis.....	58,305	Wheeling.....	17,006
Cincinnati.....	33,900	Memphis	7,768
Louisville.....	34,551	Galena	6,251
Pittsburg	45,794		
Total.....			292,470

This increased tonnage does not express the growth of business, since, as we intimated above, by increase of speed the efficacy of a given amount of tonnage is forty times greater than formerly. In fact, it would require 12,000,000 tons to do the present amount of business at the old time, and the capital required for mere transportation would be $600,000,000 instead of $15,000,000, as it is now. The effect of the shortened time is also seen in the lower freights. In 1815, cotton cloth was 30 cents per yard, at which price four hundred pounds of cloth was worth $120. The freight from New Orleans to St. Louis was, at the same time, five dollars per one hundred pounds weight. In 1860 the same quantity of cloth was worth $44, and the transportation 40 cents, or 10 per cent of the cost. Thus it will be seen that the Western farmer for a bushel of wheat gets eight yards of cloth, instead of two as at the former period. The market for the manufacturer is thus greatly extended. So, too, the sugar of Louisiana goes up the river at $4 per hhd., instead of $60, as formerly, and the farmer has the benefit of the difference.

We thus see what the past has done for the West, and what great promises the future holds out. We see, too, how important all these great avenues of trade are for her rapid development. She cannot afford to lose her railroad connections with the East, nor yet can she consent that the free navigation of the Mississippi should be interrupted. The two years of war we have passed through have given good proof of the necessity that exists for both of these connections with the markets, and the damage she must suffer were either to be closed. Much discussion has arisen, therefore, as to the course the Western States would take were the South to be successful in this war, and the lower Mississippi pass out of the control of the United States. We deem this question, however one of very easy solution. With God's help we propose to keep the Mississippi. But even if we fail in that, there can be no reason why the

West should go with the South, for it is just as much benefit to the South as to the West that the navigation of the river be free, and on making a peace that point would of necessity be agreed upon, and the right be secured by treaty to both parties.

Nor can it be said that a treaty would not long be respected by the South; that she would, in spite of it, interrupt our trade and shut up the river, if at any time she should imagine it to be for her interest to do so. We might reply that we could *make* her respect her treaties. But, waiving that question, it is still evident that a treaty would leave the right just as secure as it would be if the river belonged to this government alone. We could not guard against all contingencies in any case. For instance, although our government extends now, and did before the war, over all the States bordering on the river, yet that fact did not prevent the Southern States seceding and blocking up the river. And were the South allowed to go to-day, and the West with it, what would prevent Louisiana seceding to-morrow from the Southern Confederacy, interrupting the navigation of the river, and enacting over the same folly of which we are at present reaping the bitter fruits?

But there is no necessity for arguing this question, as it is evident there is no reason why one should conclude that the free navigation of the Mississippi would be interrupted, simply because the river passed through different nationalities. All rivers thus situated are free in all nations to the dwellers on the banks. The Rhine, which descends from the Alps, has on its banks France, Switzerland, many German States, and Belgium, and it debouches in Holland. The Tagus and the Duro traverse Spain and find the sea in Portugal. The Elbe, in the Bohemian Mountains, traverses Saxony, Prussia, Mecklenbug, Hanover, Denmark, and reaches the ocean in the territory of Hamburg. The Weser traverses Saxony, Hanover, and Oldenburg to the ocean. The Danube traverses Wurtemburg, Bavaria, Austria, Hungary, Sclavonia, and finds its outlet in the territory of the "sick man"—Turkey. The Vistula passes from Poland into Prussia. The Po passes through many countries of Italy to lose itself in Venitia. The St. Lawrence skirts the State of New York to find the sea in British territory. In short, there is no large river of the world which finds the sea in the same nation in which it rises. *Yet, of all the grounds of hostility which have arisen, interruption to river navigation has never been one.* It is no doubt true that, as in the case of the Mississippi, interruption has resulted from war; but on the return of peace free navigation has ever been the rule. Whatever, therefore, may be the issue of the contest we are now waging, this great avenue of trade which we have so long enjoyed will not, after the war is ended, be interfered with.

From the statements made above it is evident that the West, rich in mineral and material wealth of every kind and with free and extensive means of communication with the markets of the world, has a future in store for it of unexampled prosperity. Its rich lands are even now feeding the world; but we think a greater source of wealth will be its manufactures—the working up of its own abundant materials. The condition of the West now is not unlike that of New England on the occurrence of the war of 1812. Up to that time the leading interests of that section were fishing, exporting and freighting, while "free trade" was the cardinal political doctrine of the people. Great wealth had been ac-

cumulated in the carrying trade during the wars of NAPOLEON, and the farmers of the valleys of the Hudson and Connecticut had become rich by the export of breadstuffs. The embargo and the war ending suddenly, stopped the whole current of that trade, and there was a reflux of capital from those employments, which accumulated at the financial centers, and finally took a new direction—running into manufactures. This new enterprise was pushed with New England's characteristic energy, changing, however, (as we think, unfortunately,) the political sentiments of the people from "free trade" to "protection."

In the past ten years the West has, as we have shown, exceeded all other sections in prosperity. Population and capital have flowed in upon her, developing productions which have found a ready sale at good profits, while by means of the railroads the whole Western country has participated in the general prosperity. Now the population has grown somewhat in excess of the number which can readily be supported from agriculture, even if possessed of a large foreign market, and, as formerly in the East so at present in the West, manufactures are growing up and are succeeding, even in spite of the advantages of capital and long experience of the East. The census gives us the following figures in relation to the progress of the West in that direction:

	Population.	*No. of factories.*	*Capital.*	*Value raw material.*	*No. hands.*	*Value produced.*
Eastern States.....	10,580,840	71,878	$721,679,206	$685,787,348	1,025,067	$1,298,207,058
Western States.....	6,567,249	34,301	196,869,475	224,257,494	222,325	390,411,942

Thus it appears that the value per head of manufactures at the West is $46, and at the East $122, and that the West produces nearly one-third as much as the Eastern and Middle States. But the productions are of a coarser description, as is evident from the fact that at the West the raw materials are 60 per cent of the value produced, while at the East they are but 50 per cent. These manufactures at the West, it must be remembered, have grown up without any protection from the vast competition of New England capital, although that competition has been far more direct and effective than was that of foreign goods against New England at the close of the war in 1812. The principal kinds of manufactures produced, East and West, have been as follows, according to the same authority:

EAST.

	Capital.	Value.	
	1860.	1850.	1860.
Boots and shoes.....	$20,019,039	$46,723,572	$77,355,368
Woolens.....	31,513,258	40,23?,869	62,609,568
Cottons.....	89,464,544	58,566,922	106,573,646
Clothing	17,471,504	37,837,591	51,618,?92
Sewing machines	1,344,050	.....	5,426,560
Furniture.....	3,372,162	12,270,416	16,026,?65
Pig iron.....	.....	.....	3,170,101
Steam engines.....	.....	23,529,733	32,937,361
Agricultural implements.	.....	4,134,232	8,249,281
Iron foundries.....	.....	14,683,600	20,871,310
Lumber.....	.....	32,748,645	38,524,900
Flour	.....	74,753,685	90,261,856
Soap and candles.....	3,816,958	7,940,632	10,458,542

WEST.

	Capital.	Value.	
	1860.	1850.	1860.
Boots and shoes.....	$3,141,920	$5,141,520	$9,465,205
Woolens.....	2,519,289	3,930,084	3,718,092
Cottons.....	783,000	1,269,403	1,391,987
Clothing.....	3,021,221	2,765,232	8,610,329
Sewing machines	46,200	.....	178,785
Furniture.....	3,971,910	3,960,993	6,674,839
Pig iron.....	.....	.....	16,311,000
Steam engines.....	.....	3,625 317	8,233,876
Agricultural implements.	.....	1,923,927	7,955,545
Iron foundries.....	.....	3,839,887	5,170,984
Lumber	.....	14,577,250	33,274,793
Flour	.....	42,673·992	96,038,794
Soap and candles.....	1,783,127	1,836,802	5,607,187

These figures indicate the nature of the struggle that has been going on. Thus, articles like shoes and clothing have not as yet flourished at the West under the severe competition of the East, although the West has the advantage in respect to raw materials. But in the heavier articles, like iron, furniture, agricultural implements, steam engines, etc., which are protected at the West by the cost of transportation of the materials, the increase there has far outstripped the progress of the same branches at the East. These figures also indicate that all branches of manufactures are organized and ready for expansion. At such a moment war supervenes and closes the door to much of the usual trade of that region, by cutting off the Southern outlets. The employments of Western capital come to an end, and enterprise is turned in the direction of manufactures at the very moment when cotton, the raw material for $106,000,000 of Eastern manufactures, is no longer available, and the flax and wool of the West are becoming the materials for clothing.

Thus the golden period for the West has arrived; he East having no longer the advantage over her, and the usual employment for capital being cut off to a great extent, we shall soon find her expanding in this new direction and furnishing not only food but clothing for the world. Her fertile soil, aided by machinery, can, with the same amount of manual labor, furnish a larger surplus of food than any other region; while her raw materials, her minerals, her water-courses, and her railroads all combine with cheap food to make the West the region for the cheapest possible production of manufactures. The fruits of her rich soil will then find a market, not only directly but also in the shape of goods. England now imports food and material from the West, and, combining them with English labor, furnishes goods for the supply of the world. The Eastern States have also in the same way gained great wealth. But now the West is about to do that business for herself—combining her own labor, material, and food, and thereby becoming the center of manufactures.

HUNGARY—ITS CHIEF PRODUCTIONS.

BY LADISLAS, KORIZMICS, OF PEST,

VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE HUNGARIAN EXHIBITION-COMMITTEE FOR THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1862.

According to official accounts Hungary produces each year of—

Wheat.....	14,655,000	Vienna	Metzen.*
Rye.....	15,321,000	"	"
Maize.....	14,506,000	"	"
Barley	15,950,000	"	"
Oats.....	24,909,000	"	"
Other kinds of cereals.....	1,425,000	"	"
Peas, beans, lentils.....	1,860,000	"	"

The agricultural products, which are especially fit for exportation, are, wheat and flour, rape and rape oil, tobacco, wine, wool, timber, hemp.

WHEAT AND FLOUR.

Although the whole quantity of the wheat grown in Hungary (nearly 15,000,000 V. M.) is of good quality, still the wheat grown in the Banat, in the counties of Bács and Fehér, and in the plains adjacent to the river Theiss, is considered the best.

The staple places for the corn trade are Pest, Mosony (Wieselburg,) Györ (Raab,) Törökbecse, Szeged, Nagy Kanizsa.

Of these places, Pest being the most important market, the prices there may be regarded as the general average.

These prices were in the year			1824.....	1	florin	21	kreuzers.†
"	"	"	1836–1845	1	"	82	"
"	"	"	1851.....	2	"	86	"
"	"	"	1854–1861.....	4	"	37	"
"	"	"	1862 (August)..	4	"	70	"

To Pest comes the corn by railways, and on the Danube; from thence it is conveyed to Vienna by the railway on the left bank of the Danube, or more generally by steam and common boats.

From Pest also, and from that part of Hungary situated on the right side of the river, corn is sent to Trieste by railway. On this line the freightage for a hundred weight of wheat is now, from Buda to Trieste, 80 kreuzers.

Of the Hungarian wheat a superior flour and grit is made, and from the barley a very good quality of groat is produced in large steam mills, of which the most important are at Pest and Buda, though some very

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* 1 Metzen — 1.691 bushel.

† 1 florin — 100 kreuzers, about 2 English shillings.

considerable establishments are also to be met with throughout the country.

The following exhibited at the International Exhibition, will serve as a sample of the kinds of flour made, and the cost of each kind:

THE CYLINDER MILL ASSOCIATION AT PEST.

A. Table grit, coarse.....	15	florins	20	kreuzers	the cwt.*
B. " fine.....	15	"	20	"	"
No. 0. King's flour	14	"	20	"	"
1. Chandler extract.....	13	"	20	"	"
2. Baker extract.....	12	"	..	"	"
3. Flour for rolls, best.....	10	"	30	"	"
4. Flour for rolls.....	8	"	60	"	"
5. Bread flour, best	7	"	60	"	"
6. Bread flour	6	"	30	"	"

The above sorts are sold in sacks of 150 pounds. Each sack costs one florin Austrian currency.

The flour is carried by the Southern Railway to Trieste, for 1 florin 20 kreuzers per cwt., or for 1 florin 3 kreuzers if for export, which must be made known to the railway directors.

RAPE.

The rape or colza is chiefly cultivated on the extensive plains in the counties of Bács, Torontál, Crongrád, Békés, Csanád, Arad, Pest-Solt, Heves-Szolnok, and on the right bank of the Danube in the counties of Fehér, Tolna, and Baranya.

The annual crops depend in a great degree on meteorological conditions, and therefore vary. In the year 1861 the total produce amounted to about 1,000,000 Vienna metzens, while in 1862 it was scarcely one-quarter of that quantity.

The price of the metzen was, 1861, 7½ florins; in 1862, 8½ florins. Six florins can be taken as the average.

The central trading staple for rape is Pest.

The greater part of the rape grown in Hungary is exported as rape-seed; though there are some establishments where it is pressed for obtaining oil. One of most important mills is close to Pest, at Rákos-Palota, belonging to the firm S. W. Schossberger & Sons. About 160,000 Vienna metzens are worked up there annually, which yield about 40,000 Vienna cwt. of oil, and 80,000 cwt. of rapeseed cakes (oil cakes,) which are exported in great quantities to England.

The price of these articles are, for 1862:

a. Double refined oil, the Vienna cwt., cask included, 36 florins. In other years about 27 florins.

b. Raw rape oil (Rohes rüböl,) 35 florins. In other years, 25 to 26 florins.

c. Machine oil (Maschinen Schmieröl) extensively used instead of the olive oil for oiling machines, 38 florins.

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* 1 English ton = 18 14-100 Vienna cwt.; 1 Vienna cwt. = 123 English pounds, 7 ounces, and 5 drachms.

d. Rapeseed cakes, the common food having failed this year, 2½ florins; but in other years about 1½ florins the Austrian cwt.

Linseed cakes are also produced, and considerable quantities exported. The cwt. 4 florins.

TOBACCO.

The tobacco plant is cultivated quite extensively in Hungary. Although the manufacture and trade of snuff, tobacco, and cigars is a State monopoly, permission to grow tobacco can be obtained of the authorities, as well as license for its export, hence this favorite occupation of the Magyar is continually on the increase.

For the State purposes a license is given annually for the cultivation of an area of about 75 to 100,000 yokes, (one Hungarian yoke, 1.06 acre,) in addition to which a certain area for growing tobacco for export is allowed to be cultivated. In the present year the area of tobacco planting for export amounted to about 8,000 yokes. The chief district for tobacco is situated on the left bank of the Theiss.

The quantity raised on the area reserved for the State manufactories amounts annually to about 750,000 cwt., and on that for export about 80,000 Vienna cwt.; were an impetus given by a greater demand, the production could be doubled or trebled.

We give the following as specimens of the prices fixed by the State factories for the tobacco needed for their own purposes during the years 1862, 1863, and 1864; other prices are fixed for the tobacco from other places:

A. COMMON LEAVES.

From Debreczen, Szamoshát, Szullok, Nagy-Károly, Szeged, Theiss, moscatel and common garden-grown tobacco, the Austria cwt. without the stalk (Storren.)

Selected leaves.....	11 florins.		
First quality.....	8 "	50	kreuzers.
Second quality.....	6 "	50	"
Third quality.....	4 "		

B. GARDEN LEAVES.

From Csetnek.

First quality	20 florins.
Second quality.....	15 "
Third quality.....	8 "

It is to be remarked that the tobacco enumerated under A. is used for cigars and snuffs, while those under B. for pipe smoking.

By private merchants it is purchased also at different prices according to the places; but 16 florins per Austrian cwt., best quality; 10–12 florins, second quality; and 6–8 florins, the last quality, may be taken as the average prices.*

Among the wholesale merchants engaged actually in the export trade may be mentioned:

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* According to the latest news, the price is increasing.

a. S. W. SCHOSSBERGER, in Pest, who has taken about 2,000 yokes from the area allotted for the production of tobacco for export.

b. LEDERER BROTHERS, in Pest, with 1,500 yokes.

c. KOHN JZIDOR, in Pest, with 1,000 yokes.

d. KOHEN BROTHERS, in Pest, with 500 yokes.

It is only lately that the restrictions on the production have ceased, but since that time the tobacco-planting and trade have very much augmented, and besides the above-mentioned firms there are also others engaged in it.

WINE.

As regards the production of wine, Hungary is one of the most important provinces in Europe. Its annual produce is exceeded only by that of France, while for quality of material it stands unrivalled.

The wines were not till recently sufficiently known, since, owing to various causes, only a very small quantity went abroad, and for the same reason also wines perfectly prepared are not now easily found in considerable quantities. But still a larger supply is kept in store than hitherto demanded for exportation. The right sources must be applied to, and excellent qualities will be found in sufficient quantities. There are some growers in whose cellars thousands of eimers are stored waiting for purchasers; but there are also some other merchants who could supply on demand 15,000 to 20,000 eimers of good wine.

To give an approximate idea of the scale upon which the production of wine is carried out, it will suffice to mention, that in Hungary, (without Transylvania, Croatia, Esclavonia, and the respective military frontier,) to the culture of the wine 591.356 yokes (or per 800 square klafter, 1.182.712 quarters) are allotted; the yearly produce (on a quarter about 20 eimers*) amounts nearly to 24,000,000 eimers; of this, at the present time, about 3,000,000 eimers is of such a quality that, by proper management, it can become an article of exportation.

Superior wines are produced in the following districts:

The yearly production.	Eimers.
Tokai-Hegyallya, in about 19 places	268,000
" the vicinity of it, 25 places	130,000
Ménes-Magyarát, about 14 places	241,000
Ruszt and the county of Sopron (Oedenburg.) about 19 places	59,000
Somló and the county of Veszprém in about 7 places	25,000
Badacson and the environs of the Lake of Balaton, in about 10 places	90,000
Neszmély and its environs, in about 7 places	80,000
Érmellék in the county of Bihar, in about 20 places	240,000
Eger-Visonta, in about 19 places	240,000
Szegzárd in the county of Tolna, in about 13 places	150,000
Villány and its environs, in about 11 places	80,000
County of Baranya, in about 11 places	400,000
Buda and the environs, in about 6 places	400,000

* 1 Eimer = 11.8 gallons.

The yearly production.	Eimers.
Pest-Köbány (Steinbruch,) in about 7 places	50,000
Szerednye, in about 8 places	60,000
County of Nográd, in about 14 places	150,000
County of Hont, in about 14 places	40,000
County of Posony (Pressburg.) in about 11 places	100,000
Vágh-Ujhely, in one place	6,000
County of Fehér (Stuhlweissenburg,) in about 8 places	60,000
County of Somogy, in about 10 places	40,000
County of Vas, in about 19 places	60,000
Together, 272 places; yearly,	2,969,000

The enumerated localities are already known in the country, but there are besides them many others where a superior quality of wine is produced, but which is not sent to the market.

First-rate "*Ausbruch*" and *dessert wines* are produced in Tokai-Hegyallya and its environs, Ménes-Magyarát Ruszt, Sopron (Oedenburg.) Badacson, and the environs of the lake of Balaton.

Excellent *red table wines*, which can be compared to the best French wines, come from Eger (Erlan,) Visonta, Szegzárd, Villány, the county of Baranya, Buda and its environs, Vágh-Ujhely, etc.

The best places for *white table wines* are Magyarát, Somló, the county of Veszprém, Badacson, the environs of the lake of Balaton, Neszmély, Ermellék, Pest-Köbánya (Steinbruch,) Szerednye, the counties of Nográd, Hont, Posony (Pressburg,) Fehér, Somogy, and Vas (Eisenburg.)

The first qualities of the Somló wines, if properly treated, is not inferior to the *best southern*. Notwithstanding the excellence of their quality Hungarian wines are very cheap; the reason of this is, because they are not exported, and therefore may be said to be unknown. The present International Exhibition affords the first occasion for the public to judge of their worth.

The best table wines can now be had in Hungary in great quantities—10, 15, 20 florins the eimer; common good wines for 6, 8, 10 florins.

If English or American capitalists would join us, and thus a market be secured for our wines, the trade in Hungarian wine would soon be one of the most important and lucrative.

The freightage per cwt. wine (which is about the weight of one eimer in cask) on the railway, including also the channel, as far as London, is at present about 6—7 florins; *via* Trieste it is of course cheaper, especially if English vessels could carry it as return cargo.

Besides the great quantity and large variety of dessert and table wines, there is a great amount of material fit for distillation, and with a little capital cognac-factories could be established for this article, as such, or as a mean of adjusting the respective wines, to correspond with port or sherry.

WOOL.

Hungary produces every year about 230,000 cwts.* of wool, of which 118,000 cwts. are fine, and 112,000 cwts. common quality.

* 1 Austrian cwt. — 100 Austrian pounds — 123 English pounds, 7 ounces, and 5 drachms.

The wool production is represented at the International Exhibition by the following growers:

	Cwts.
Baron Simon Sina.....yearly production	3,085
Count Lewis Károlyi.....	1,031
Prince Philip Batthyanyi.....	1,000
Counts George Camillo and Aladár Zichy.....	1,000
Count George Festetics.....	700
Count Stephen Károlyi.....	700
The estates of the Primate of Hungary.....	500
Count Edmund Zichy.....	500
Count Maurice Sándor.....	450
Count Dyonis and Emeric Széchenyi.....	320
Count Paul Pálffy.....	280
Prince Saxon-Coburg Gotha.....	260
Count John Waldstein.....	100
The Abbey of Csorna.....	100
Paul Kis de Nemeskér.....	80
Count Julius Jankovich.....	80
Count George Andràssy.....	70
Count Felix Zichy-Ferraris.....	70
The Crown-Estate of Old Buda.....	30
Baron Nicolas Vay.....	30
Robert Czilchert (Juror).....	30
Constantine Gyiokó.....	28
Edward Egan.....	10

The staple place for the wool is Pest, where it is during the fairs (held quarterly) bought by foreign merchants, either directly or through the medium of the home merchants.

The greatest part of the fine wool is grown on the estates of the great land owners. B. S. Sina produces now the greatest quantity. Thousand or more cwts. are produced yearly by several land proprietors, as Count Zichy de Langh in the county of Fehér (Stuhlweissenburg,) C. Lewis Karolyi, C. George Karolyi, Prince Philip Batthanyi, and many others.

Less than 1,000, but above 500 cwts., is produced by a great number, and from 100 to 500 by very many land owners.

FOREST PRODUCTS.

The area covered by forests is nearly one-fourth of the whole land; but it is not equally distributed, and therefore in parts destitute of wood the price is sometimes exceedingly high, while in the forest-districts it scarcely can be sold.

The greater forests are to be found in the counties of Arva, Túrocz, Lipto, Máramaros, Trencsén; the upper part of the counties of Zemplén, Ungh, and Beregh; and in the counties Krassó, South-Bihar, and Arad, the parts contiguous to Transylvania. The counties Baranya, Somogy, and Veszprém abound also in wood; but as regards the export trade none of the enumerated tracts of land are superior to Esclavonia—being the nearest to the Adriatic.

In the forests are to be found pines, common and turkey oaks, and beeches; in less quantity, maple, alder, ash, and the lime tree.

The pine is chiefly to be found in the counties of Máramaros, Arva, Túrocz, and Liptó; but in less quantity it is spread over a great area, commencing from Pressburg on the summit of the Carpathian range, as far as the southern end of Hungary in the Banat, and besides that it occurs also in the counties of Baranya and Vas.

On the more temperate mountain chains the beech and oak abound, especially the counties of Krassó and Somogy are famous for their beech forests. As timber used in husbandry, it is said that none is superior to the beech.

The plains produce chiefly the turkey and the common oak.

The trade in wood is carried on by means of the rivers, and most extensively practised on the Theiss, with the wood derived from the forests in Máramaros, Beregh, and Ugocsa. Besides that, a considerable trade is carried on on the Szamos, Körös, Berettyó, and more on the Maros. The staple places are along the river Theiss, Tisza-Ujlak, Tisza-Füred, and especially Szolnok and Szeged; on the river Maros, Lippa, Arad, and Mako.

Towards the valley of the Danube the greatest part of the wood is transported on the river Vág, from the counties of Arva, Túrocz, Liptó, and Trencsén; the staple places being Hradek, Rozsahegy (Rosemberg,) Zsolna, Vágh-Ujheiy, Szered and chiefly Komárom, which place supplies with wood for building purposes the whole country down the Danube as far the Turkish boundaries.

On the rivers Garan and Jpoly also much wood is conveyed; but none of the rivers is superior in this respect to the Dráva (Drau,) for the wood derived from the mountains of Styria and Croatia. A considerable quantity of wood is transported on the Danube, also from Austria and Bavaria to Pest, where a most extensive trade is carried on.

The price of the wood has of late years greatly increased; the chief causes of this are the great enterprises in buildings and railroads, where it is used very often even as fuel. It may be stated, that the price of the timber is about the quadruple of what it was 15 or 20 years ago. But still many forests can be found, where wood has nearly no price for want of means of conveyance.

As an average the price of 1 florin and 1 florin 20 kreuzers may be taken for one cubic foot of timber of the first quality for building purposes and of timber for agricultural and domestic utensils. Extraordinary sizes from 1 florin 20 kreuzers to 2 florins. That is for hard wood, the soft wood is about one-third less in price.

The price of the staves per eimer varies according to size, from 60 to 80 kreuzers.

FLAX AND HEMP.

The flax and hemp could also become an article for exportation.

The northern districts are excellently qualified for the growth of flax; especially the counties of Szepes (Zips,) Sáros, Arva, Túrocz, Liptó, Trencsén, Zolyom, and even Máramaros and Vas.

In the southern parts of Hungary the culture of flax gives place to that of hemp. As places producing this material in a superfine quality, may

be named, the county Bács, and the southern part of the county Pest-Solt. The production of this place is an article of trade under the name "Apathin-hemp,"* and may annually amount to about 150,000 cwt. (Austrian weight.) As to the fineness of quality it may be inferior to the hemp of other countries, but as to the strength of the fiber it yields to none.

The production could be much more extended, the predilection of the people and a good soil concurring, if there was a demand for exportation.

The price of the hemp is variable, according to the quality.

The prices at the market of Pest are as follows:

Rough hemp.....	16½ — 17	florins	the Vienna cwt.
Hemp for ropes.....	23½	"	"
Mixed hemp for spinning.....	29	"	"
Fine tow	10	"	"
Rough tow.....	7 — 8½	"	"

THE EUROPEAN LOAN OF THE CONFEDERATE STATES.

Much has been said respecting the European loan of the Southern States. As it is now certain that the amount asked for will be raised, the terms on which it is negotiated become a matter of interest.

The loan is for a moderate amount only, viz., £3,000,000 sterling. It is to bear interest at 7 per cent, but as it is issued at 90, and a certain discount is allowed, it may virtually be regarded as an 8 per cent transaction. The principal is to be paid off at par in 20 years. But in the meantime any bondholder may, if he prefer it, receive at any time, on giving 60 days' notice, the value of his bond in *cotton* at 6d. per pound for "middling Orleans." If he asks for his cotton while the war continues, it will be delivered to him in the interior of America, within 10 miles of a railway or navigable river. If not demanded till after the "re-establishment of peace," (when six months will be allowed for the option,) it will be delivered to him free of all charges at one of the principal cotton ports of the South.

To lead one to invest in such a loan as this necessarily requires great faith. But just at the present moment the word "cotton" has much the same effect on the European brain as the word "contraband" has on the American. In this operation London thinks she sees cotton, and therefore forgets that the war is not at an end; forgets that the most of the Southern States have in former times repudiated their debts; in fact, forgets everything except that the South has heretofore grown the raw material. When pay day comes around it would not be wonderful if the Confederate States were to forget that the money had ever been borrowed.

* The name of a village in the county of Bacs, on the Danube, being also a steamboat station.

FRANCIS W. EDMONDS.

[We give this month a Phototype (an excellent likeness,) of the late F. W. Edmonds.]

Francis William Edmonds was born in the city of Hudson, in the State of New York, on the 22d November, 1806. His father, General Samuel Edmonds, was born in the city of New York, and after serving through the whole Revolutionary War, and on the dissolution of Washington's army at Newburgh, he settled on the banks of the Hudson River, at the landing which afterwards became the city of Hudson, and died there in 1826. His mother was of the family of Worth's, who originally emigrated from Devonshire, in England, settled on the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, and two of them—the brothers Thomas and Hubbard—were of the party who erected the city of Hudson.

In early childhood F. W. Edmonds was of a grave and rather sedate temperament, with an under-current of quiet humor. When quite young he evinced a striking tendency for Art. His first attempts with slate and pencil were made almost as soon as he had learned to use a pencil, and he used to pick up broken type from the refuse of a printing office, cast them into flat plates, and with his pen-knife engrave figures and letters on them. So marked was this tendency in him that his father took some steps towards binding him as an apprentice to some of the distinguished engravers then flourishing in Philadelphia. But before the arrangement was completed he was offered by his uncle, the late G. A. Worth, afterwards president of the City Bank, a clerkship in the Tradesmens' Bank, which was accepted, and Edmonds, at the age of sixteen, came to the city of New York, which thenceforth, except a short interval of two years, became his home. He remained in various subordinate positions in that bank until 1830, when, at the early age of twenty-four, he was appointed cashier of the Hudson River Bank in his native place. While cashier at Hudson, he married a lady of that place, by whom he had two children—a son and a daughter. The latter survives him; but his son, who displayed as strong, if not a stronger, penchant for the Arts than even his father did, died at the early age of eighteen.

Mr. Edmonds continued in Hudson only until June 26th, 1832, when he was appointed cashier of the Leather Manufacturers' Bank in this city. He continued his connection with that institution until March 8th, 1839, when he was appointed cashier of the Mechanics' Bank, which place he resigned on July 26th, 1855, and retired from the "money market" of New York. He was twice appointed to the office of chamberlain of this city, and resigned that place when he left the Mechanics' Bank.

After withdrawing from the bank, he became connected with the American Bank Note Engraving Company, and was its secretary and one of its directors when he died. While in that position he sketched many of the pictures which that company have used for their bank and treasury notes. "The Barn Yard," "The Sewing Girl," "The Mechanic," and "Grinding the Scythe," are among the many which attracted attention for their vigor and fidelity to the reality.

His early education was no more than that of a tolerably good village school; but during his clerkship in New York he studied hard to make up the deficiency. The books he bought at that time, and most frequently perused, besides works that related to the Arts, were the works of JOHNSON, ADDISON, SHAKSPEARE, and the British dramatists, and he thus became a polished and vigorous writer and a very good extemporaneous speaker—distinguished in all he wrote or spoke for conciseness and directness. He became at one time a frequent contributor to the periodical press on politics, finance, literature, and the arts, and yet so unpretending with it all that only his most intimate friends were aware how much of his leisure time he thus occupied.

But it was only after dark that his time was thus occupied with his pen and general literature. All his leisure hours during the day time were devoted to painting and to improving himself in that branch of art. His performances in that direction soon attracted notice, as remarkable for one so entirely self-taught as he was. But he loved the Art with his whole soul, and while he never permitted the pursuit of it to interfere with his business, he gave himself up to it to the exclusion of all those enjoyments which ordinarily are so powerfully attractive in this city to lads fresh from the country and thrown at large among the wonders and temptations of the commercial metropolis.

After a while he was induced to bring out one of his pictures at the annual exhibition of the National Academy. That first exhibited work of his was "Hudibras Capturing the Fiddler," now in the possession of his brother, the Judge, and was entered on the catalogue as painted by "F. William," and under that *nom de plume* his pictures appeared in the gallery for several succeeding years, until he was finally detected, and elected an associate in the Academy, and ever afterwards was received among the artists of the country as one of their "Fellows." Several of his pictures have been engraved, and a few have been sold, but many yet remain at his late residence in Westchester. They are mainly delineations of homely domestic scenes, and remind one of WILKIE'S line of art. The only opportunity he ever had of studying the art, beyond the leisure which his business as a banker afforded him, was a short visit he made to Italy, on one occasion, when his health had become impaired by the labor he undertook of examining the Manhattan Bank, in addition to his ordinary duties with his own. When abroad he spent his whole time in Italy, and his associations were almost exclusively with artists. The works he painted after his return showed a marked improvement in the coloring, and were in consequence received with more favor.

As a banker, it was his singular fortune never to have had the easy post of a cashier in an institution already organized and in prosperous condition. The Hudson River and the Leather Manufacturers' Bank he had the task of starting *ab ovo*. He was their first cashier. And the Mechanics' had been much crippled by the misfortunes which preceded his connection with it. When he left it, it was in a most flourishing condition.

He ranked high among the bankers of our commercial emporium, and his opinions were very much respected. The readiness with which he mastered the most complicated details of finance, the soundness of his judgment, and the far-sightedness of his views on all subjects connected

with the monetary affairs of the country were known and appreciated by all who knew him or knew of him.

In 1840, shortly after he became cashier of the Mechanics' Bank, he was appointed secretary of a board of commissioners, composed of Messrs. JAMES G. KING, ROBERT H. MORRIS, and JAMES BOORMAN, to investigate the condition of the Manhattan Company. That examination was entrusted to Mr. EDMONDS, and the report of it, written by him, attracted much attention as a very able, clear, and exhaustive document. From that time his ability as a bank officer was established and ever afterwards recognized. To a very remarkable degree he enjoyed the confidence and esteem of all classes of bank officers, among whom he attained to high rank as a careful and conservative banker, for whose judgment great respect was entertained.

In 1853, when the competition in banking and the increase of business had rendered it necessary to change the method of transacting the complicated business of the banks with their associates—there being at that time fifty-seven banks engaged in business in the city of New York—he was one of the first of the bank officers to advocate the establishment of a clearing-house, and was recognized as a leader in the movement to that end. The reputation which he enjoyed enabled him to do more perhaps than any other banker to harmonize differences of opinion and to adjust satisfactorily the delicate details of that organization. It was largely owing to the influence which he exercised that fifty-two of the fifty-seven banks were induced to unite in the Clearing-house Association. He was appointed chairman of the first clearing-house committee, associated with Messrs. PUNNETT, SILLIMAN, EVERETT, and BERRY, and was annually re-elected, with them, to that position until his retirement from the Mechanics' Bank.

He was of a warm and affectionate nature, but not demonstrative of his feelings. He was very sensitive, and very shy of showing that he was so; always generous and liberal, yet sternly and strictly just. His integrity was so inflexible that he was hardly indulgent enough to the failings of others in this respect. He was intimately known but to few, but their regard for him was very great, and his sudden and unexpected death took from many of our best men a highly valued friend. The National Academy, the American Bank Note Company, a railroad company of which he was a director, the Society of Neighbors, and the Church of which he was a vestryman, all bore public testimony to his worth, and he has left a void with us the more marked because of the singular union in him of superior excellence, both as a banker and an artist, and because of the example he was setting us of what may be done by devoting leisure hours to mental and moral culture, rather than to indolent ease or selfish indulgence.

His life was a steady progression in knowledge, in love, and in purity, and alas! that it should have been withdrawn from among us.

COMMERCIAL LAW IN GENERAL.

BY THEOPHILUS PARSONS, LL. D.*

PROFESSOR OF LAW IN THE UNIVERSITY AT CAMBRIDGE.

ALL law is divided into what is called, in law-books, common law and statute law. We have legislatures, and our fathers had them; and a very large proportion of the laws now binding upon us were made by those legislatures in a formal and regular way. All these are Statutes; and taken altogether, they compose the Statute Law. Beside this, however, there is another very large portion of our law which was not enacted by our legislatures; and it is called the Common Law. In fewer words, all law was regularly enacted, or it was not. If it was, it is statute law; if it was not so enacted, it is common law.

The common law of this country consists, in the first place, of all the law of England—whether statute or common there—which was in force in this country at the time of our independence, and recognized by our courts, and which has not since been repealed or disused. And next, of all those universal usages, and all those inferences from, or applications of, established law, which courts in this country have recognized as having among us the force of law. For this common law there is no authority excepting the decisions of the courts; and we have no certain means of knowing what is or is not a part of the common law, excepting by looking for it in those decisions. Hence the value and importance of the reported decisions, which are published by official reporters in most of our States.

The courts are *judicial* bodies, and not *legislative;* that is, they are bound to declare and define and apply the law, but have no power to make it. And some have called the common law "judge-made law," as if the courts had exceeded their powers, and violated their duties, in thus "making" common law. But the objection is not a wise one; for the very necessity of a court springs from the constant need of a tribunal competent to determine what the law is; and if the determination of this tribunal has not the force of law, it would be of no use. The legislature can always, by a statute, amend, annul, or adopt any rule of common law.

It is very important, however, that our common law should be as fixed and as definite as possible; and that is the reason, not only why nearly all decided cases are now reported and printed, but why a case once decided

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* Probably our readers (at least the legal portion of them,) are well acquainted with the writings of Prof. PARSONS. His treatises on the "Law of Contracts," "Laws of Business for Business Men," "Elements of Mercantile Law," "Law of Bills and Notes," and the "Law and Practice of Admiralty," are standard works, alike noted for their clearness, precision, and accuracy. Prof. PARSONS seems also to be able to state the principles and rules of law in such a manner as to make what he says interesting and intelligible to every one. No legal education is required to understand what he writes for merchants and other business men. We therefore doubt not that our readers will find great pleasure, as well as benefit, in not only reading, but studying every thing from his pen that we may be able to publish.—Ed. *Merchants' Magazine.*

becomes a precedent and almost a law for all of like kind that follow. We say *almost* a law, for a court may make a mistake, and other courts should not be bound by it, but have the power of substituting the true doctrine. And the changes in society and in the course of business make some changes in the law necessary. Hence, however desirable stability may be, some fluctuation is inevitable. And hence the law under which we live changes from time to time, merely by the action of the courts, without the same public and authentic notice as when a new law is passed.

For example, we have in Massachusetts, as in most of the States, a statute copied substantially from an English statute, prohibiting unnecessary work or labor on Sunday. In 1813 the Supreme Court of Massachusetts held, that if a man signed a note or deed on Sunday, without sufficient cause, he was liable to punishment for this violation of law, but the instrument was valid. So the law remained until 1847. In that year the court decided that no instrument could be valid which was made in violation of law, and therefore that such a note or deed would be void. This is now the law in Massachusetts, as it is the prevailing rule elsewhere.

We have from this cause not only changes of the law, but uncertainties. In part, because questions occur in practice about which lawyers differ, and must differ, until the courts settle them; but also because different courts at the same time, or the same courts at different times, decide them in different ways.

There are still some uncertainties of this kind in the laws of business. A person not a lawyer is sometimes surprised to be told that no certain answer can be given to the question he asks; and it is generally so much safer for the lawyer to say anything else but this—for the uncertainty will often be attributed to his ignorance—that he is sometime induced to give as law what is only his opinion. In what I have written or published I have endeavored never to do this, and never to avoid the danger of seeming ignorant, by concealing such uncertainties. Wherever they came in my way, and seemed necessary to a full exposition of the law on any given topic, I have stated them distinctly; and wherever I thought I had sufficient grounds for a decided opinion, I have expressed it, but only as my opinion.

A very important part of the common law, especially to all men in business, is what is called, by an ancient phrase, the Law-Merchant. By this is meant the law of merchants; or, more accurately, the law of mercantile transactions; and by this again is meant all that branch of the law, and all those principles and rules, which govern mercantile transactions of any kind. This great department of the law derives it force in part from statutory enactments, but in far greater part from the well established usages of merchants, which have been adopted, sanctioned, and confirmed by the courts. For example, a large proportion of the law of factors and brokers, most of that of shipping and of insurance, and nearly all the peculiar rules applicable to negotiable paper (or promissory notes and bills of exchange payable to order,) belong distinctly to the Law-Merchant.

The courts of this country have always acknowledged that a custom of merchants, if it were proved to be so nearly universal and so long established that it must be considered that all merchants know it and make their bargains with reference to it, constitutes a part of the law-merchant. And the law merchant is itself a part of the common law, and therefore has the whole obligatory force of law. This would not be true, if the custom was one which violated statute law, or the obvious principles of public policy or

common honesty. But we may suppose that no custom of this kind would ever be so generally adopted and established as to come before the courts with any claim for recognition as law.

There is another distinction which should also be understood. It is that between Courts of Law and Courts of Equity. In England this distinction is very great; it is less in this country, and appears to be growing still less. In most of our States the same courts sit at one time as courts of law, and at others as courts of equity. But different arrangements on this point prevail in different parts of the country.

It would require a volume, and a large one too, to state with any clearness all the differences between these courts. Here we would say only, first, that actions may be brought in equity courts, mainly, in the four cases of fraud, accident, mistake, and trust; and secondly, that while courts of law can only give compensation in money for damages, courts of equity compel the delinquent party to perform specifically the very thing he ought to do. Thus, if a policy of insurance was made, either by fraud or accident or mistake, different from what the parties agreed that it should be, the law could do nothing, unless an injured party could prove damages of a certain kind, and these he might recover. But a court of equity would rectify the error, and order the policy made as it should be made. So if the owner of land agreed in writing to sell it upon certain terms, and afterwards refused to sell it, law could only give damages, but equity could and would compel the owner to make a proper deed of the land.

The difference between the powers and remedies of courts of law and those of courts of equity is sometimes important in reference to mere business transactions, or to the laws of business. Sometimes we speak of courts of law and courts of equity; and sometimes, using the shorter and usual phrase of law-books, say only that law will do this, and equity do that; but by law is meant law as administered by courts, and by equity the equity administered by courts. And all courts of equity have now rules of jurisdiction and of practice about as exact and rigorous as those of courts of law; although differing almost wholly from them.

A great deal of the language of every art or science or profession is technical, (indeed, *technical* means belonging to some *art*,) and is peculiar to it, and may not be understood by those who do not pursue the business to which it belongs. This is as true of law as of everything else. I shall, however, avoid as far as possible mere law-words; and when I use them shall explain them at the time. There are some, however, which cannot be dropped; they express exactly what is meant, and we cannot express it without them, unless by long and awkward sentences. A good instance of this is in those words which end in *er* (or *or*) and in *ee*. As for example, promisor or promisee, vendor and vendee, indorser and indorsee. These terminations are derived from the Norman-French, which was, for a long time, the language of the courts and of the law in England. And it might seem that we had just as good terminations in English, in *er* and *ed*, which mean the same thing. But it is not so. Originally they meant the same thing, but they do not now; for both *er* and *ee* are applied in law to persons, and *ed* to things; so that we want all three terminations. For example, indor*ser* means the man who indorses; indor*see* means the man to whom the indorsement is made; but the note itself we say is indor*sed*. So vend*or* means the man who sells, vend*ee* means the man to whom something is sold, and the thing sold is vend*ed*. And the promiser makes the

promise, the promisee receives it, and the thing to be done is promised.

The phrase "presumption of law" will be sometimes met with. This means, that in certain cases, and upon certain facts, the law *presumes* without proof that the parties did so and so, or intended so and so. There are a great many presumptions of law; indeed, something of this kind occurs in every case. Thus, if anybody is charged with crime or wrong, the presumption of law is that he is innocent. If one makes a promissory note without any time expressed for payment, the presumption of law is that the money is payable on demand. If there be a sale, and no delay agreed on as to delivery of the thing sold, or the payment for it, the presumption of law is that the thing sold is to be delivered at once, and that payment is to be made at once. Of these presumptions a few are *absolute*, that is, the law will not receive any evidence to the contrary; but most of them—especially in mercantile transactions—are open to evidence, and may be removed by sufficient proof.

It will be noticed, also, that some questions are spoken of as "questions of fact," and others as "questions of law." This distinction is occasionally important in cases which arise in business. The rule is, that a court must not undertake to decide a question of fact, because this is within the exclusive province of the jury. But the court alone must decide all questions of law, and the jury are bound to take and apply the law as it is given them by the court. Thus, if goods are sold to an infant, (by which the law means a minor,) and he refuses to pay for them, the question comes up whether they were necessaries; for if they were, the infant is bound to pay for them. This question resolves itself into two. One is the question of law, what kind of things the law means by "necessaries" when it says the infant must pay for them; and this the court alone decides, and instruct the jury accordingly. The other is, are the things sold such as the court say the law considers necessaries? and this the jury alone decides. These questions sometimes run together; and juries often undertake to settle the law as well as the fact; but they have no right to do so. Judges are selected from the most learned of the profession, and paid by the people *to be their lawyers;* that is, to secure for the people the intelligent construction and application of the laws which the people have made by their representatives to protect themselves. And the question whether the jury or the judge shall determine the law, is only the question whether the people wish to have their own laws construed and applied by those who are most able to do this properly, or by those who are less able.

Another phrase often met with is "the burden of proof." The law means by this the duty or necessity of proving what one asserts; and it is often very important to ascertain on whom this duty or burden rests. Thus, if A sues B for the price of goods sold, and A says he sold them to B, and B says he never bought them of A, B has nothing to do until A proves the sale; for the burden of proof is on him. The general rule is, that whoever *asserts an affirmative* must prove it, and he who only *denies* need not prove it. One reason for this is obvious. It must be far easier for a man to prove that he did a certain thing, (for any one who saw it is a sufficient witness,) than for another man to prove that he did not do a certain thing; for if ten thousand people did not see him, this does not *prove* it, for perhaps somebody else did see him.

The burden of proof sometimes shifts back and forth in a case. If A sues B on a note, B does nothing until A discharges the burden of proof

by showing that B signed it. Then the burden of proof is on B, if he says he paid it; and if B proves that on a certain day he gave A certain money or goods in payment, he discharges his burden of proof, and it then shifts on A, and, if he still denies the payment, he must prove that the money was counterfeit, or the goods worthless, or some other similar fact, which shows that there was no payment in fact.

Another word is in frequent use in the law-merchant. It is "lien." This is a Norman-French word, and literally means a tie, a bond, or connection. It is used in law to signify the right which a party has over a thing in his possession, to keep it until his charge upon it, or arising out of it, is paid. Thus, if a wharfinger or warehouseman stores goods, or a common carrier carries them, he is not bound to deliver them up until the storage or carriage is paid for, because he has a *lien* on the goods for these charges, and by virtue of the *lien* may keep them until these charges are paid.

There is still another word which occurs so often that it may be well to explain it. It is "assets;" thus lawyers and law-books speak of the *assets* of an heir, or an executor, administrator, trustee, or assignee. This word means all the property, and valuable interests of every kind, which belong to any fund, and are available for the charges to which that fund is appropriated. Thus, to say that such a thing is "assets" in the hands of the assignee of a bankrupt, is to say that he is entitled to it as a part of his fund, and must realize or collect or reduce it to money as well as he can, and divide it among the creditors.

THE DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES APRIL 1, 1863.

[*From the Washington Chronicle.*]

The statement given below of the amount and character of the public debt is authentic. More than a year ago some patriotic alarmists startled the country by the announcement that our public debt had already amounted to a thousand millions, and that it was increasing at a rate that would in another year render us completely bankrupt. Now, just two years after the breaking out of the rebellion, we find that our debt is only nine hundred and twenty-three millions, less than one-half what the croakers predicted. It is less than one-half the debt of France, less than one-fourth the debt of England, less by nearly five hundred millions than the debt of Russia, less by a quarter of a million than the debt of poor, poverty-stricken Austria. This does not look very much like bankruptcy, nor like abandoning the war for the want of resources. On the contrary, the facts all go to prove that we are the richest and most powerful people on the face of the earth:

STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC DEBT UP TO APRIL 1.

	Interest per annum.	Amount.
7-30 convertibles, interest 6 per cent, due in 1881	6.10-100	$139,996,950 00
6 per cent debt	6.10	92,625,905 91
5 per cent debt	5.00	30,483,000 00
Certificates	5.60	273,880,176 20
United States notes	....	345,553,500 00
Requisitions	....	46,646,615 61
Aggregate		$929,186,147 72

THE NEW CHAMBER OF COMMERCE ROOMS IN MILWAUKEE.

ADDRESS OF THOS. WHITNEY, ESQ., AT THE OPENING.

We have frequently referred to the many advantages to be derived from well organized Boards of Trade in all our cities, by cultivating identity of interest and establishing unanimity of action in all great and important movements or enterprises effecting the trade and commerce of the country. Any new movement, therefore, indicating energy and life in an old organization we are glad to see. About four years ago a Board of Trade was established at Milwaukee, in a basement room, with about fifty members. There was doubt whether it had sufficient vitality to drag through its first year's existence. Two other unsuccessful attempts had been made on previous occasions to organize a similar institution, and it was therefore with fear and trembling that this new fledgeling was put upon its legs. But this time the undertaking seemed animated with a new life. Probably old failures taught wisdom, and very likely, too, the leaders in this third movement indoctrinated it with a larger proportion of Western energy and perseverance than blessed the former efforts. At all events, it proved a success and advanced one step after another until now it boasts two hundred and seventy live members, with new and elegant rooms for their meetings. On the occasion of opening these new rooms, (February 3, 1863,) Thomas Whitney, Esq., delivered an address, which is full of interesting facts, well put together. We are persuaded that the wealth and power of the West is not appreciated by the mass of people East. An able article will be found in this number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, showing a few of its resources and giving some idea of its future. We now add quite extensive extracts from Mr. Whitney's address, furnishing, as it does, an excellent resumé of the State's past history. In speaking of the trade of the State, he says:

Its origin and growth are not only within the *recollection* of many of our citizens, but within the *experience* of quite a number. It is only a few short years since the entire domain, stretching west from the shore of Lake Michigan, was one vast uncultivated tract, with scarcely a furrow upon the surface of this great area to break the quiescent state in which nature had left it. Since the only pursuits followed by the inhabitants of this section of the country were those of hunting and fishing, and the only commerce of our State was that with the red man of the forest.

Surprising as it may seem, no longer ago than 1836, only twenty-seven years since, this entire State, which has an area of soil greater than that of Maryland, New Hampshire, Vermont, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Con-

necticut, and Delaware combined—greater than that of New York, Connecticut, and Delaware, and equal to the combined area of Ohio, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, which now numbers its 800,000 souls, only contained a population, all told, of 11,686 persons.

Six years previous, in 1830, thirty-three years ago, there were but 3,245 persons within the length and breadth of what was then the Territory of Wisconsin.

From 1840 to 1850 the growth of our State in population was unprecedented in the history of this nation. Never since the foundation of this government was there increase equal to it. Our sister States of Illinois and Iowa did nobly during the decade referred to, but it was left to Wisconsin alone to outstrip all of those States which had gone before her.

The ratio of increase in Illinois from 1840 to 1850 was 79 per cent; of Iowa, 346 per cent; that of Wisconsin, 887 per cent—from 31,000 in 1840 to 305,000 in 1850. Only in two instances since 1800 had 50 per cent of this increase ever been reached by any State or Territory in or of the Union. Indiana increased from 1810 to 1820, 500 per cent, and Michigan, from 1830 to 1840 571 per cent. With these two exceptions, no State had ever before grown with half the rapidily of our own from 1840 to 1850.

Since that time, however, our extraordinary growth, which I have just described to you, has been entirely eclipsed and obscured by our sister State of Minnesota, whose ratio of increase, from 1850 to 1860, was 2,761 per cent.

The ratio of increase in the whole United States from 1850 to 1860, was but 35½ per cent. In the Northwest, 68 per cent; in Wisconsin, 150 per cent, and in Minnesota, as I have just stated, 2,761 per cent, leaving Wisconsin the second State in the Union distinguished for rapidity of growth.

Massachusetts has 158 inhabitants to the square mile; we have as yet only $14\frac{4}{100}$. Massachusetts has a little over 4 acres to each inhabitant; we have 44½.

The entire product of our agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing interests in 1840; which is as early as we have any data respecting the condition and growth of our State, was but $4,149,946; in 1860, it was $75,658,640—a gain in the product of our State, in twenty years, of $71,508,694. The value of our agricultural products alone has increased from $2,689,959 in 1840, to $47,149,730 in 1860—a gain in our *agricultural* products in twenty years of $44,459,771.

In 1850 (we have no report of our farms in 1840,) we had 2,976,658 acres in farms; in 1860, 7,889,170 acres—a gain in the area of our farms, in ten years, of 4,922,512 acres. The area of our farms exceeds that of the area of the entire State of Massachusetts.

The value of our farming lands in 1850 was $28,500,000; in 1860 $131,000,000—a gain in the value of our farms, in ten years, since 1850 of $102,500,000.

Our agricultural implements used in tilling the soil have increased in value $4,117.279 in ten years; from $1,641,568 in 1850, to $5,758,847 in 1860.

In 1850 we had 1,046,000 acres of land under cultivation; in 1860, 3,746,036 acres—an increase in ten years, since 1850, of 2,700,036 acres of cultivated land in our State. Our cultivated land equals that of the entire area of the States of Connecticut and Rhode Island combined.

In 1840 we had 40,682 acres of land devoted to cereals; in 1850, 490,735 acres; and in 1860, 1,966,500—1,925,818 acres more in 1860 than in 1840, and 1,475,765 more than in 1850.

The tillage of wheat—our chief agricultural staple and article of export—was, in 1840, 815,151 acres; in 1850, 306,152 acres; and in 1861, according to our Secretary's report, 1,112,600 acres—an increase of 1,097,449 acres of wheat since 1840, and of 806,448 acres since 1850.

Michigan, which had a larger population in 1830 than we had in 1840, and Iowa, which was in 1840 double our size, each now have about the same population, and yet the wheat product of neither equals that of Wisconsin at the present time, within about 50 per cent.

Our cereal crop has grown from 1,020,000 bushels in 1840 to 56,051,000 in 1861—a gain of 55,031,000 bushels since 1840, and of 45,991,000 bushels since 1850, when our cereal crop amounted to but 10,060,000 bushels.

Our cereal crop of 1861 was 31,414,000 bushels greater than the cereal crop of all the New England States in 1860.

Our wheat crop in 1840 yielded 212,000 bushels; in 1850, 4,286,000; in 1860, 15,812,000; and in 1861, according to our State report, 27,316,000.

Wisconsin is now the second wheat producing State in the Union. Illinois alone grows more wheat than we do. Our wheat crop for 1861 was 3,000,000 bushels greater than that of Ohio, New York, and all the New England States combined for 1860; greater than the entire wheat crop of Canada of the same year.

The increase of our wheat crop from 1850 to 1861—over 23,000,000 bushels—was equal to one-third of the increase in all the States and Territories of the Union from 1850 to 1860. The increase of the whole United States, including the Territories, from 1850 to 1860, was but about 70,000,000 bushels, or about 70 per cent—from 100,000,000 to 170,000,000 of bushels—while the wheat crop of Ohio showed no increase from 1850 to 1860; and while that of New York showed a decrease of 40 per cent during this period, that of Wisconsin showed an increase of 275 per cent.

The average of our wheat crop in 1850 was fourteen bushels to the acre, while in 1861, according to our State returns, it was twenty-four and-a-half bushels to the acre. The largest known yield of Ohio was about seventeen bushels; of Michigan, nineteen; of Massachusetts, sixteen.

The average of the wheat crop of France is thirteen bushels; England twenty-one; Flanders, twenty-three; Scotland, thirty. So we see that with a mere nominal comparative cost of production, the average crop of Wisconsin, for 1861, exceeded that of either France, England, or Flanders, where wheat culture is carried to a very high state of perfection, and was *only* exceeded by that of Scotland.

But it must be borne in mind, in looking over these figures, that our crop of 1861 was a very prolific one, and one such as is seldom harvested in any of our wheat growing States.

Our corn crop increased from 379,359 bushels in 1840, to 7,565,290 bushels in 1860. The increase from 1850 to 1860 was 5,576,000 bushels. Although not a corn State, yet in but four States—Kansas, Minnesota, Oregon, and California—has the ratio of the increase of this crop been greater since 1850, than in our own.

Our oat crop was 406,514 bushels in 1840; 11,059,270 in 1860. The increase from 1850 to 1860 was 7,644,598 bushels; from 1840 to 1860 10,652,756. The ratio of increase in this crop has been exceeded since 1850 in but five States—Minnesota, Kansas, Oregon, California, and Texas.

Wisconsin is the fifth oat producing State in the Union.

Our rye crop increased from 1,963, bushels in 1840 to 888,534 in 1860. But six States grow more rye than we do. Barley from 11,062 bushels in 1840 to 678,992 bushels in 1860. But five States grow more barley than ours. We grew but 419,608 bushels potatoes in 1840; 3,848,505 bushels in 1860.

Our hay crop, which was but 30,938 tons in 1840, was 853,799 tons in 1860. There are but six States in the Union whose hay crop exceeds that of Wisconsin.

The value of our live stock in 1840 was $2,019,000; in 1850, $4,807,385, and in 1860, $17,807,366—a gain in our live stock, since 1850, of $12,909,981; and since 1840, of $15,788,366.

We grew but 6,777 pounds of wool in 1840; in 1860 we grew 1,011,915 pounds—an increase of over 1,000,000 pounds in twenty years. We had but 3,462 sheep in 1840; 332,454 in 1860. Our sheep growth has increased 207,558 head since 1850, and our wool crop 757,952 pounds.

We made 13,651,053 pounds of butter in 1860—an increase of 10,017,303 pounds since 1850, and over 13,000,000 pounds since 1840. Our butter product is greater than that of the great State of Virginia; 50 per cent greater than that of Massachusetts; and more than double that of New Hampshire.

The entire product of our industrial pursuits in 1840, from our mines, fisheries, and manufacturers, (aside from our agricultural interests,) including the cost of constructing our houses, was, according to the census report of that year, but $1,409,987; in 1860, according to the same authority, it was $28,500,000—a gain of over $27,000,000 in twenty years; an increase by no means discreditable, when we consider that ours is a new State of comparatively limited means, and whose people are mainly devoted to the culture of the soil.

I will speak of the growth of but a few of the interests included under this head, and then pass on.

In 1840 we had but four flouring mills, turning out 900 barrels of flour annually, besides 29 wind and water grist mills, yielding an annual income of but a few thousand dollars only.

In 1860 we had 371 establishments, turning out 2,250,954 barrels of flour, and yielding an annual income of $11,073,586—a gain in the product of this interest, over that of 1850, of $7,537,293, and since 1840 of over $11,000,000.

In 1840 we had but one tannery, with a capital of $2,000, employing three men and turning out 300 sides of leather annually, valued at less than $1,000; in 1850, the product of our tanneries was $181,010; and in 1860 $498,268—a gain since 1850, of $317,258, and since 1840 of $497,268.

The coming season, the product of two alone of the tanneries of our State, owned and carried on by enterprising merchants of this city, fellow members of this Board, will fall very little, if any, short of $600,000, so

that by the close of 1863, the product of this interest will reach very nearly, or quite to, $1,000,000.

In 1840 we had six distilleries and breweries, producing 8,300 gallons whisky and 14,200 gallons beer, valued at $12,000; in 1860 we had 136 distilleries and breweries, producing 4,000,000 gallons beer and 531,000 gallons whisky, (the first instance on record where whisky ever got laid out,) valued at $804,158—an increase in the yield of this interest, since 1840, of over 4,500,000 gallons and of $792,000.

The value of the product of our lumber establishments in 1840 was but $351,000; in 1850, $1,218,516; in 1860, $4,836,159; showing a growth in this very important branch of our industry of $3,617,643 in ten years, and of $4,485,159 in twenty years.

We had but one furnace in the State in 1840, turning out three tons of castings, valued at less than $500. The product of our furnaces in 1850 was $115,214; and in 1860, $377,301—an increase of $263,087 since 1850, and over $375,000 since 1840.

We had no woolen factories as early as 1840; in 1860, we had 16, whose product was $167,600.

Our manufacture of agricultural implements, in 1850, was $187,335; in 1860, $563,855—a gain in our manufacture of agricultural implements, in 10 years, of $376,520.

The manufacture of boots and shoes in our State is not *a bootless* one by any means. The product of this branch of manufacture, in 1860, was $902,000—a gain over that of 1850 of $612,000, and over that of 1840 of almost $900,000.

The first manufacturing enterprise of note instituted in *this* section of the country, was in the shape of a saw mill, erected within, what is now, the city limits, in the year 1835, by a Mr. DARLING, better known in the community at that time by the not very euphonious, though perhaps more appropriate, name of "Old Fixings." This mill was located on the Milwaukee River, a short distance above the present dam, and is reported to have done a very flourishing and successful business for the times. To-day, we have no less than nine large flour manufacturing establishments in this city alone, with a capacity for turning out not less than 1,200 barrels of flour daily, valued at over $6,000.

These figures give a very good idea of the growth of the resources of Wisconsin during the past twenty years.

PHOTOTYPES—SOMETHING NEW.

The style of the engraving which we give of Mr. Edmonds is a recent discovery, the work being done by the phototypic process. Although it may be true that there is really nothing new under the sun, yet by means of the sun we are continually working out new and wonderful results. Thus we are indebted to its rays for this new style of engraving. A matrix, the reverse of the desired plate, is made, and then copper is deposited upon that matrix in a galvanic battery. The process by which this is done is the invention of Leopold Eidlitz, the celebrated architect and designer; and there is now on the corner of Bleecker and Mercer Streets an establishment called the American Phototype Company, where engravings of this kind are made. It takes three or four days to furnish an ordinary plate. The company have a room from which the light of day is carefully excluded, and in which a single small jet of gas is burning. Upon a table in this room is a photographic printing frame, a stout wooden frame, with a thick glass in front, and a moveable cover back of it. When the matrix is to be made, the glass is placed towards the table, the negative immediately upon that, next comes the matrix plate, and the cover fastened down tight with a brass spring. The frame is now removed from the dark room into the light of the sun, and there left for about ten minutes. It is then returned to the dark room, when the frame is opened, the matrix plate taken out, and the desired picture is found upon it, but otherwise it will be perfectly smooth, and hard to the touch. The next step in the process is to lay this plate in a flat dish containing a colorless fluid for about half an hour. When again examined it is found to be a bas relief. A fluid solution of gold is now poured over it, so as to cover the entire plate. After the lapse of a minute or two this is poured off, and the plate placed in a dark box where it remains for nearly an hour. When taken out, it is covered with a film of bright metal, looking in fact as if it were made of solid gold, which, however, on examination will be found to be illusion, and what was gold before being converted into a thin blue bas relief. The matrix is then hung in a galvanic battery. The next day the plate is taken out of the battery, the glass removed, and the copper shell backed up with type metal, and then it is ready for the printer.

In the way above described plates are made from engravings, or where they are desired to be made from original designs, negatives are taken from pen and ink sketches. Sometimes the artist sketches his design upon glass plates prepared for the purpose, (as was done in the case of the engraving of Mr. Edmonds,) the plates being like white porcelain, and can be worked on with a steel point with great facility.

The beauty and excellence of many of the pictures made by this process, which we have seen, is really wonderful. Some of them we should pronounce superior (on account of the soft photographic tint they possess) to the fine steel engravings of which they are copies. The phototype company have, in connection with and as a part of their establishment, an apartment hung all around with these pictures of their own production. They have there heads of every size, from the imperial down to the *cartes de visite*, all exquisite, the half and middle tints as well preserved as the bolder lights and shadows. There also one sees some fine copies of the choicest engravings, all rendered with the utmost fidelity to the originals.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GOLD MOVEMENT—SPECULATION—COUNTER SPECULATION—RESTRICTIONS ON TRANSACTIONS—NEW YORK BILL—CHANGE IN DEALING—INSECURITY OF PROPERTY—VIEWS OF THE SECRETARY—GENERAL REVIEW—CURRENCY—FREE USE OF PROPERTY—EVILS OF THE FLUCTUATION—EVASIONS OF THE LAW—BORROWING ON STOCK—GOLD MOVEMENT—DECLINE IN BANK—CLAIMS OF CREDITORS—ARREARS OF THE TREASURY—DEMAND NOTES—DUTIES ON GOLD—GOVERNMENT SECURITIES—DEPOSITS—INTEREST INCREASED—EXCHANGE—RUINOUS EFFECT ON IMPORTS—CHECK TO EXPORTS—GREAT FLUCTUATIONS—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK—EXPORTS.

THE general markets have been greatly influenced during the month by the decline in the value of gold, and the uncertainty which attends the movements of the Secretary of the Treasury. The rapid rise in gold, or what is the same thing, the rapid depreciation of the government paper, elicited counter speculation. Thus in California, where gold continued to be the currency, the paper sold at a discount greater or less, according to the supply. The quotation was 64 cents per dollar. In New York, the paper being the currency, gold fluctuated, and when it reached 172, paper was, in fact, 58 cents to the dollar. This would give a profit of 6 per cent to one who should buy the notes here and send them to San Francisco. But a larger sphere of operations was sought and found by speculators. Large buyers of paper appeared, some it was stated held $1,000,000, anticipating a rise in its value. A great combination of this kind, having the assurance that the departments* would put out no more paper within a given time, could within that time draw a large amount out of the market. They therefore did so. A charge of disloyalty, too, against gold speculators, accompanied by restrictive laws of Congress and our Legislature, (which we notice below,) with prompt sales of considerable amounts of gold for cash, at any price, would break the market. This plan was therefore carried out, and the holders of $15,000,000 "greenbacks" were able to realize a profit of $1,000,000 in a fall from 72 to 52 in gold, or, in other words, a rise of paper from 58 cents to 65 cents per dollar. For instance, at the former rate, 72 per cent, the value of the $15,000,000 would be $8,700,000

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* The idea that the fall in the price of gold was brought about by government influence, receives confirmation in the following from the *Tribune's* money article of March 27th:

"It is currently reported that the object of Mr. CHASE's visit to this city had more connection with the decline in gold than in raising money for the war. *He is reported to have borrowed ten millions of specie of certain of our banks, repayable from the customs, with which he has broken the back of the gold speculation, and will continue to hammer it until he has forced the premium back to a legitimate point.* We give this report as we hear it. Several circumstances of the last ten days are explained by it, if true. We know that such a scheme was proposed to him more than a month ago, through a member of the Committee of Ways and Means, by one of the shrewdest operators in Wall-street."

Upon this the *World* comments thus:

"We do not know how this is, but we do know that gentlemen in Wall-street, reported to be Mr. CHASE's friends, have had other than *patriotic motives for wishing a heavy decline in gold. They were large short sellers of that metal.* Can it be that it was for them Mr. CHASE has become the great gold bear?"

in gold, but with gold forced down to 52, would give as the value of the paper would reach $9,850,000. By this combination the profit would be $1,150,000 in gold, or $1,740,000 in paper. Of course the reissuing of the paper bought up for the rise, the resumed payments of the government, and the renewed course of the market, would make the rise in gold higher than ever. But then that forseen event only affords an opportunity for a profitable operation in the opposite direction.

This decline in gold was also assisted by the large sales that were made early in March, accompanied, as we have stated, by the operation of the bill which passed Congress restricting the banks and others from loaning on gold, and taxing such transactions, and a bill introduced into the New York Legislature to the following effect:

"Any and all banks, insurance companies, trust companies, savings institutions, and other moneyed corporations shall be and are hereby prohibited from making or continuing any loan or loans in money or otherwise upon gold coin or bullion, or any paper representations of these *or either of them*, or upon any foreign *bill or bills of exchange* whatsoever, under the penalty of a forfeiture of their charter or articles of association, as the case may be; and any such loan or loans so made or continued to be made, shall be absolutely void, and no action for the recovery thereof shall lie in or be entertained by any court of justice of this State." Section 2 provides that this act shall take effect immediately.

The act of Congress above referred to, changed the mode of doing business in gold, and caused a decline while this change in the mode of dealing was going on. It is seldom that the aid of law has been invoked so directly to aid speculation. But the most mischievous effect of this and similar laws, is to chill public confidence in the security of property and the rights of proprietors. The effects of paper money cannot be legislated away, and are by no means new or untried. The banks, the merchants, and the public comprehend the inevitable results. Indeed, Mr. CHASE himself, in his annual report, 1861, stated them as follows: (Page 18.)

"The plan (paper money) is not without its hazards; the risks of a depreciated, depreciating, and finally worthless paper money; the immeasurable evils of dishonest public faith and national bankruptcy. These possible disasters so far outweigh the probable benefits of the plan, that he feels himself constrained to forbear recommending its adoption."

There was no doubt in the mind of any thinking man but that paper would depreciate, and that that depreciation would show itself in the rise of gold as compared with currency, should the paper be adopted as the currency. In California it was not adopted, but gold continues to be used, and paper is quoted at a discount greater or smaller as the supply comes upon the market from the Treasury. But Congress and our Legislature have refused to accept the lessons taught by experience, and are enacting the same laws that failed in the last century, when applied to the same state of affairs. The act above quoted, in its attempts to do an impossibility, takes away the right of the free use of property, and deranges the usual course of business. Thus the soundest and safest business for bankers at all times is to discount bills of exchange, on the facility of converting which depends the whole export business of the country—in fact, the market for every kind of farming produce depends upon the value of the exchange it creates. The above bill, however, seeks to make that paper unavailable. The Federal Government has passed a law which allows the Treasury to take gold on deposit, and issue certificates for it. The above act makes

those certificates unavailable at bank, and deranges business in many ways, without in any respect touching the business in gold. Thus, if a person wishes to hold gold to an extent beyond his cash means, he can borrow on stocks of any kind, buy the gold, lodge it with the Federal Treasury, and get 5 per cent interest on it, or he may ship the gold out of the country and lend it at 5 per cent interest in London, holding the bill against it. This plan has been in a measure adopted, and the gold movement as affected by the legislative interferance has been as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1862.		1863.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold.
January 8.	.....	442,147	.....	681,448	35,954,550	34¼ a 34⅝
" 10.	885,928	1,035,025	1,277,788	726,746	36,770,746	34 a 39
" 17.	.....	547,703	.....	1,380,247	37,581,465	40 a 49
" 24.	627,767	322,918	678,841	780,816	38,549,794	47 a 50⅝
" 31.	.....	310,484	.....	1,331,027	38,894,840	48¼ a 60¼
February 7.	854,000	976,235	301,860	1,277,000	38,243,839	57½ a 57¼
" 14.	614,146	1,156,154	359,978	1,152,846	38,426,460	53½ a 53¼
" 21.	759,247	934,512	.....	520,017	37,981,310	54 a 64
" 28.	741,109	510,774	285,394	1,377,016	39,512,256	71 a 72
March 7.	679,074	585,286	1,243,551	733,643	39,705,089	52½ a 53
" 14.	677,058	477,335	.....	3,540,550	36,110,085	54½ a 54¼
" 21.	.....	540,968	249,514	1,201,907	33,955,122	53 a 54¼
Total....	5,818,325	6,639,471	5,396,925	14,703,263	.....	

The receipts from California, March 7, included $1,000,000 for the United States Treasury, transferred from the mint at San Francisco to New York. Including the shipments from Boston, the export of specie in five weeks was $7,400,000, making over $15,000,000 since January 1st. There was a good deal of gold held here by banking houses for foreign account, with orders to sell it when a favorable opportunity occurred. On the appearance of the restrictions the risk of holding it could no longer be incurred, and the gold was shipped. The depression in the price of gold was aided also by the heavy indebtedness of the Department. Early in January it was stated that the troops and other creditors were so heavily in arrears that Congress, by joint resolution, hurried through the premium to issue $100,000,000 of legal tender to pay them. More than sixty days have since elapsed, and the indebtedness is quite as large as ever—a circumstance which checks the progress of depreciation.

The demand notes receivable for duties have been very nearly absorbed, and gold has begun to flow into the Treasury to meet the duties. Some $2,024,000 were so received in three weeks, making a demand in the market for $125,000 per day in addition to the export demand.

The government securities were better during the month.

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881.			7 3-10,	6 p. c. certif.		August demand
	Reg.	Coup.	5's, 1874.	3 years.	1 year.	Gold.	notes.
January 3,...	96½	98	88½	102½	96½	34¼ a 34⅝	29
" 10,...	97⅝	98	90	103	97	37⅛ a 38	35
" 17,...	91⅝	91⅝	88½	101	95	49 a 46⅞	43
" 24,...	95	96	90	102	96	47 a 48½	44⅝
" 31,...	92½	94	86	101½	94	55 a 60⅝	53

	6's, 1861. Reg.	6's, 1861. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	6 p. c. certif. 1 year.	Gold.	August demand notes.
February 7,...	92	93¾	85¼	102	94	57½ a 57¾	55
" 14,...	94	96	87¼	102¾	96	53½ a 53¾	51
" 21,...	96½	97¾	91¼	103¼	95	53½ a 64	62
" 28,...	100¾	102¾	97	105¼	98¾	71 a 71½	71
March 7,...	99¾	100¾	94¾	105	98½	52½ a 53	53
" 14,...	104½	104¾	98	106¼	100	54¼ a 54½	53
" 21,...	103½	104½	96	107	100	54¼ a 54½	..

Under the new loan there were issued 1-year certificates, bearing interest payable in paper instead of gold. These sold 3 @ 4 per cent less than those which bear the gold interest. The deposits receivable at the Sub-treasury also cease to have the interest paid in gold. The limit on the amount by law is $100,000,000, to fill which about $30,000,000 was required, and the Secretary offered 5 per cent interest, payable in paper.

The sudden fall and fluctuation in the price of gold affected exchange to a considerable extent; but few, however, were disposed to sell at the lower rates, which were as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 3,	146 a 147¼	3.85 a 3.80	56 a 56¼	56 a 56¼	49½ a 49¾	98 a 98½
" 10,	149 a 152	3.72½ a 3.67½	56 a 58	57½ a 58½	50½ a 51½	99 a 100
" 17,	160 a 162	3.52½ a 3.45	60½ a 61½	61 a 62½	54 a 55½	108 a 110
" 24,	162½ a 163	3.50 a 3.45	61 a 61½	61½ a 62	54 a 54¾	107 a 108½
" 31,	171 a 177	3.32 a 3.15	65½ a 66½	65 a 67	57 a 58¾	114 a 117
Feb. 7,	169 a 173	3.30 a 3.25	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	57 a 57¾	114 a 116
" 14,	170 a 171	3.32 a 3.27	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	56¾ a 57½	118½ a 114½
" 21,	171 a 179½	2.20 a 3 12	67 a 68½	65 a 68½	59 a 60½	118½ a 119½
" 28,	185 a 188	3.10 a 3.00	67½ a 71	70 a 71	61¾ a 62½	123 a 124
Mar. 7,	167 a 169	3.37½ a 3.30	64 a 64	65 a 66	55 a 55½	111 a 113
" 14,	168 a 171	3.35 a 3.30	64 a 64	64½ a 65½	55¾ a 56¾	112 a 114
" 21,	169½ a 171½	3.37½ a 3.27½	63½ a 63½	63½ a 64½	56 a 57	113 a 114

The market was filled with various rumors of fabulous amounts of gold offered the government abroad, and of fifty to $100,000,000 of exchange for government stocks, and that agents were sent abroad to negotiate loans. All these and other self-contradictory rumors had the effect of making buyers of exchange cautious, and thus diminish sales. A sudden fall of nearly 20 per cent was a serious matter to shippers of produce and general dealers, checking business to a marked extent. Ohio flour fell 60 cents per barrel, and the transactions were light. One of the greatest costs of paper money are those violent fluctuations which involve all dealers in great hazards, and inflect ruinous losses upon the most circumspect. The gradual rise in exchange imposed a continually increasing burden upon the importers, who ultimately collect the amount from the consumer. A sudden fall of 20 per cent in exchange is a bonus of some 25 @ 30 to those who by chance have goods to pay for at that moment. The imports for February were as follows:

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Entered for Consumption.	Entered for Warehouse.	Total.
January.....	$101,906	$2,413,649	$8,741,227	$4,482,794	$15,739,676
February..	213,971	783,561	7,372,539	3,657,775	12,037,846
Total.....	$315,877	$3,197,210	$16,113,766	$8,140,569	$27,767,422
" 1862..	225,665	5,933,523	13,821,570	6,512,112	26,402,969

The average cost of importations for that month was much higher than for January, and much higher than for March. Inasmuch, however, as the prices did give way in March, a considerable interruption to business took place. Distant buyers, under the hope that the price of gold could not be maintained, refrained from buying goods, unless a reduction which the importers could not grant. The importers not being able to make sales, had less to remit abroad. The consumers of goods in the country find themselves in the position of getting less for produce and paying more for goods.

The exports from the port have been large, being more than 50 per cent in excess of last year for the two first months of the year. The amount is of course nominal, for the merchandise is stated at its value in the depreciated paper. This, for February, was 40 per cent, hence the effective exports of produce were barely $11,000,000. The exports of gold were also considerable for the month:

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
January.....	$4,624,574	$73,111	$668,275	$14,829,398	$19,695,351
February..... ...	3,965,664	43,889	610,009	17,780,586	22,400,148
Total.....	$8,590,238	$117,000	$1,278,284	$32,109,984	$42,095,506
" 1862...	6,435,193	76,259	358,250	22,131,578	29,001,280

The aggregate, allowing the discount on the paper value of merchandise during the month, is a little less than for the same month last year, while the imports are larger. The receipts of produce from the interior have, however, been very large, and the railroads and canals have all done an immense business. The operations of the Erie Railroad, under its new organization, give indications of this improved traffic. The freight transported for the past two years having been as follows:

	Pounds.	Value.
1861.....	2,676,748,150	$5,011,661
1862.....	3,350,468,490	7,065,363
Increase.....	673,720,340	$2,653,702

The activity on the seaboard has drawn large quantities of freight East. Of the increase, $1,300,000 is freight coming East, of which the tonnage has prodigiously increased under the very favorable arrangements that have been made under the new organization of the road. The freight per ton has been $4 32, against $3 74, or a rise of 48 cents per ton, or 13 per cent, while the cost of moving it has increased but 14 cents per ton. This has resulted in large net earnings, enabling the company to pay $426,785 in dividends, and $1,182,944 in discharge of old drains arising out of the new organization. These features of the Erie indicate the great progress made in internal traffic.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK BANKS.

It will be noted that there is a loss of about $5,000,000 in specie the past month, and that the loans and deposits have decreased with the fall in the price of gold. This is of course as might be expected. We continue our returns to the 4th of April;

CITY WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.

New York Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1862, $69,493,577.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 3,....	$173,810,009	$35,954,550	$9,754,355	$159,168,246	$186,861,762
" 10,.....	175,816,010	36,770,746	9,551,563	162,878,249	249,796,489
" 17,.....	176,606,558	37,581,465	9,241,670	164,666,003	314,471,457
" 24,.....	179,288,266	38,549,794	9,088,419	168,269,228	298,861,366
February 7,.....	179,892,161	38,243,839	8,780,154	166,342,777	302,352,571
" 14,.....	173,103,592	38,426,460	8,756,217	167,720,880	265,139,104
" 21,.....	178,335,880	37,981,310	8,752,536	170,103,758	291,242,929
" 28,.....	179,958,842	39,512,256	8,739,969	173,912,695	340,574,444
March 7,.....	181,098,322	39,705,089	8,693,175	174,689,212	344,484,442
" 14,.....	177,875,949	36,110,085	8,657,016	172,944,034	307,370,317
" 21,.....	173,829,479	33,955,122	8,609,723	167,604,166	277,831,351
" 28,.....	172,448,526	34,317,691	8,560,602	163,368,846	281,326,258
April 4,.....	173,038,019	34,257,121	8,348,094	160,216,418	287,347,704

BOSTON BANKS.

Below will be found our usual table of the returns of the Boston banks brought down to April 6:

Boston Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $————; *Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,..	$77,339,046	$7,672,028	$8,190,496	$33,372,648	.....	.....
" 12,..	77,427,000	7,751,000	8,373,000	33,063,800	17,006,000	13,520,000
" 19,..	76,624,700	7,710,600	8,199,600	33,362,000	16,547,800	13,727,700
" 26,..	76,854,000	7,710,700	8,008,500	33,847,000	16,811,700	13,958,000
Feb. 2,..	76,496,800	7,685,000	8,365,000	34,076,800	16,889,000	14,490,000
" 9,..	78,421,000	7,707,000	8,074,000	35,178,600	16,932,000	14,183,000
" 16,..	78,431,000	7,794,000	8,001,000	34,903,000	17,070,700	14,095,500
" 23,..	78,782,600	7,624,000	8,002,000	34,965,500	17,331,000	14,583,800
Mar. 2,..	79,127,500	7,553,000	8,001,980	35,245,500	17,523,500	15,004,000
" 9,..	79,274,700	7,582,000	8,225,000	35,215,000	17,340,400	14,446,500
" 16,..	79,636,134	7,609,238	7,780,062	32,955,149	17,230,300	13,434,500
" 30,..	77,935,000	7,572,600	7,593,800	31,604,500	17,074,400	11,601,300
April 6,..	76,933,600	7,703,800	7,963,500	32,687,000	15,444,000	12,280,600

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

The returns of the Philadelphia Banks brought down to April 6th, are as follows:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970,130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,...	$37,679,675	$4,510,750	$4,504,115	$28,429,189	$6,948,785	$1,994,928
" 12,...	37,533,757	4,544,786	4,450,676	28,018,792	6,890,963	1,842,932
" 19,...	37,416,694	4,549,369	4,382,520	27,877,069	7,050,847	2,275,905
" 26,...	37,479,712	4,572,419	4,284,947	28,773,517	6,755,980	2,638,985
Feb 2,...	37,268,894	4,562,580	4,181,593	29,281,753	6,698,210	2,909,857
" 9,...	37,336,367	4,319,706	4,039,918	28,062,164	6,953,215	2,518,036
" 16,...	37,710,851	4,272,347	3,888,185	28,759,049	7,452,563	2,432,073
" 23,...	37,720,460	4,276,761	3,772,781	29,342,596	7,413,249	2,703,196
Mar. 2,...	37,901,080	4,267,626	3,696,097	30,178,518	7,185,670	2,758,852
" 9,...	38,603,871	4,249,035	3,608,870	30,679,259	7,100,258	2,499,139
" 16,...	39,260,028	4,247,817	3,534,880	30,549,587	7,476,603	1,939,449
" 23,...	39,458,384	4,247,688	3,295,862	30,106,135	7,418,482	1,935,014
" 30,...	38,937,612	4,311,704	3,369,194	29,171,283	6,501,758	2,158,007
Apr. 6,...	37,516,520	4,339,252	3,374,417	29,581,559	5,768,558	2,770,129

BANK OF ENGLAND.

REDUCTION IN THE BANK RATE OF DISCOUNT.

ON the 28th of January the bank rate of discount was raised to 5 per cent, and on the 18th of February it was reduced to 4 per cent again. The reason for the rise we stated in our last, and the following figures will show the effect of that step.

The fluctuations in the items of the bank account, most critically important for the present purpose, from December 31st up the 28th of January, when the advance from 4 to 5 per cent was made, were as follows:

	Reserve of notes and coin.	Coin and bullion.
December 31, 1862.....	£9,735,171	£14,956,421
January 7, 1863.....	9,057,145	14,635,555
January 14, 1863.....	8,465,364	14,102,169
January 21, 1863.....	8,333,839	13,855,849
January 28, 1863.....	8,160,653	13,611,823

Showing a reduction of more than £1,500,000 in the reserve of notes and coin, and of £1,300,000 in the bullion during the period, and this in an uninterrupted drain week by week. In fact, from the 30th of July, 1862, each successive return showed a constant reduction in the coin and bullion until January 28th, when the decrease amounted to about £5,000,000.

Now, take the period after the 28th of January, when the rate was raised to 5 per cent. The figures are:

	Reserve of notes and coin.	Coin and bullion.
February 4th.....	£8,271,591	£13,692,136
February 11th.....	8,889,601	14,070,651
February 18th.....	9,928,502	14,589,222

Showing an increase beginning from the very moment of the augmentation of the rate, continuing with rapidity, and in three weeks bringing the coin and bullion to the same point at which it stood on the 7th of January, and the reserve of notes and coin to a higher sum than any at which it has stood during this year.

Since the reduction in the rate of discount the following has been the bullion movement:

	Increase of bullion.	Decrease of bullion.
February 25th.....	£24,874	.....
March 4th.....	.....	£109,579
March 11th.....	.....	176,339
	£24,874	£285,918

These figures would indicate that the drain had commenced again, but for the present we do not think it will continue. On the 12th of March the Bank of France reduced the rate of discount from 5 to 4½ per cent, and the bank returns of the same date gives a considerable increase in the cash, as well as a falling off in the discounts.

The following comparative table of the Bank of England returns will be found of interest, affording as it does, a view of the bank returns, the bank rate of discount, and the price of wheat in London during a period of three years corresponding with the date of our last returns March 11:

At corresponding dates with the week ending March 11, 1863.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Circulation, including bank post bills...	£19,604,536	£20,662,816	£19,801,665
Public deposits.....	6,638,884	7,527,911	8,673,899
Other deposits.....	11,691,684	13,768,718	13,282,605
Government securities	9,479,729	11,209,241	11,193,588
Other securities.....	20,021,017	18,280,554	19,805,739
Reserve of notes and coin	7,768,812	10,663,426	9,749,973
Coin and bullion.	12,329,142	16,027,111	14,328,178
Bank rate of discount.....	8 per cent.	2½ p. cent.	4 per cent.
Average price of wheat...	54s. 2d.	59s. 2d.	46s. 2d.

Subjoined is our usual table with the returns brought down to March 11th, 1863:

WEEKLY STATEMENT.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 17....	£19,932,360	£8,507,144	£14,038,994	£30,539,363	£15,031,658	3 pr. ct.
" 24....	20,150,398	8,654,499	14,306,497	31,346,731	14,870,795	3 "
" 31.. .	20,516,435	8,388,717	15,469,254	32,488,020	14,956,421	3 "
Jan. 7....	20,927,993	8,782,808	14,393,808	32,620,233	14,635,555	3 "
" 14....	21,018,849	4,280,730	16,772,782	31,165,075	14,102,169	4 "
" 21....	20,893,931	4,965,798	14,993,225	30,227,086	13,855,849	4 "
" 28....	20,771,236	5,416,863	14,414,763	30,238,865	13,611,823	5 "
Feb. 4....	20,709,154	6,351,617	13,852,287	29,997,233	13,692,136	5 "
" 11....	20,444,454	6,952,808	13,596,356	30,288,406	14,070,651	5 "
" 18....	19,916,496	7,413,275	13,769,276	29,890,503	14,589,222	4 "
" 25....	19,715,828	7,901,658	13,367,153	29,709,079	14,614,096	4 "
Mar. 4....	20,322,055	8,036,003	13,368,086	30,880,805	14,504,517	4 "
" 11....	19,801,665	8,673,899	13,282,605	31,096,327	14,328,178	4 "

PROVISIONS OF THE RECENT INTERNAL REVENUE ACT AFFECTING BANKS.

We are indebted to GEORGE D. LYMAN, Esq., manager of the New York Clearing-house, for the following extracts from the recent act of Congress amendatory of "The Act to Provide Internal Revenue, etc.," selected by him as the only portions of the act affecting the business of banks and bankers. Some of these amendments are very important, and the business community are greatly indebted to Mr. LYMAN for the efforts he has made

to secure their passage. We refer particularly to the changes made by Section 6:

SECTION 4. *And be it further enacted*, That all contracts for the purchase or sale of gold or silver coin or bullion, and all contracts for the loan of money or currency secured by pledge or deposit, or other disposition of gold or silver coin of the United States, if to be performed after a period exceeding three days, shall be in writing or printed, and signed by the parties, or their agents or attorneys, and shall have one or more adhesive stamps, as provided in the act to which this is an amendment, equal in amount to one-half of one per centum, and interest at the rate of six per centum per annum on the amount so loaned, pledged, or deposited. And if any such loan, pledge, or deposit, made for a period not exceeding three days shall be renewed or in any way extended for any time whatever, said loan, pledge, or deposit, shall be subject to the duty imposed on loans exceeding three days. And no loan of currency or money on the security of gold or silver coin of the United States, as aforesaid, or on any certificate, or other evidence of deposit, payable in gold or silver coin, shall be made exceeding in amount the par value of the coin pledged or deposited as security; and any such loan so made, or attempted to be made, shall be utterly void.

Provided however, That if gold or silver coin be loaned at its par value it shall be subject only to the duty imposed on other loans, and that nothing herein contained shall apply to any transaction by or with the government of the United States.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all contracts, loans, or sales of gold and silver coin and bullion not made in accordance with this act, shall be wholly and absolutely void; and in addition to the penalties provided in the act to which this is an amendment, any party to said contract may, at any time within one year from the date of the contract, bring suit before any court of competent jurisdiction to recover back, for his own use and benefit, the money paid on any contract not made in accordance with this act.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That section one hundred and ten be, and hereby is, amended as follows: Any memorandum, check, receipt, or other written or printed evidence of an amount of money to be paid on demand, or at a time designated, shall be considered as a promissory note within the meaning of that section, and shall be stamped accordingly; and that schedule B following said section, be, and is hereby amended, so that any inland bill of exchange, draft, or order for the payment of any sum of money exceeding twenty dollars otherwise than at sight or on demand, and any promissory note shall (in lieu of the duties prescribed in schedule B) have a stamp or stamps affixed thereon denoting a duty, upon every sum of two hundred dollars, or any fractional part thereof, if payable on demand, or at any time not exceeding thirty-three days, including the grace, from the date or sight, of one cent, (01.)

If payable at any time not less than thirty-three days, as aforesaid, and not exceeding sixty-three days, including the grace, from date or sight, of two cents, (02.)

If payable at any time not less than sixty-three days, as aforesaid, and not exceeding ninety-three days, including the grace, from date or sight, of three cents, (03.)

If payable at any time not less than ninety-three days, as aforesaid, and

not exceeding four months from date or sight, including the grace, of four cents, (04.)

If payable at any time not less than four months, as aforesaid, and not exceeding six months from date or sight, including the grace, of six cents, (06.)

If payable at any time exceeding six months from date or sight, of ten cents, (10.)

And that schedule B, following section one hundred and ten, be, and is hereby, further amended, so that the stamp duty on certificates of any other description than those specified in said schedule, in lieu of ten cents as therein prescribed, shall be five cents, (05.)

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That every incorporated bank, or other bank legally authorized to issue notes as circulation, which shall neglect or omit to make dividends or additions to its surplus or contingent funds as often as once in six months, shall, in lieu thereof, make returns, under oath, to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, on the first day of January and July in each year, or within thirty days thereafter, of the amount of profits which have accrued or been earned and received by said bank, during the six months next preceding said first days of January and July; and, at the time of making such returns, shall pay to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue a duty of three per cent on such profits, and shall be subject to the provisions of the eighty-second section of the act to which this is an addition. *Provided*, That the return for the first of January, 1863, shall be made within thirty days after the passage of this act.

PROVISO OF SEC. 16. *Provided*, That no instrument, document, or paper made, signed, or issued prior to the first day of June, Anno Domini, 1863, without being duly stamped, or having thereon an adhesive stamp to denote the duty imposed thereon, shall for that cause, be deemed invalid and of no effect; *And provided*, That no instrument, document, writing, or paper required by law to be stamped, signed, or issued, without being duly stamped prior to the day aforesaid, or any copy thereof, shall be admitted or used as evidence in any court until a legal stamp, or stamps, denoting the amount of duty charged thereon, shall have been affixed thereto or used thereon, and the initials of the persons using or affixing the same, together with the date when the same is so used or affixed, shall have been placed thereon by such person. And the person desiring to use any such instrument, document, writing, or paper, as evidence, or his agent or attorney, is authorized in the presence of the court to stamp the same as heretofore provided by law.

SEC. 37. *And be it further enacted*, That this act, except where otherwise indicated, shall take effect from and after its passage, and all acts, and part of acts, repugnant to the provisions of this act, be, and the same are hereby repealed. *Provided*, That the existing laws shall extend to and be in force, as modified, for the collection of the duties imposed by this act, for the prosecution and punishment of all offences, and for the recovery, collection, distribution, and remission of all fines, penalties, and forfeitures, as fully and effectually as if every regulation, penalty, forfeiture, provision, clause, matter, and thing to that effect, in the existing laws contained, had been inserted in and re-enacted by this act.

The following table has also been prepared by Mr. LYMAN, showing the

stamp duties under the foregoing provisions of the revenue act upon promissory notes, etc.

STAMP DUTY UPON PROMISSORY NOTES, INLAND BILLS OF EXCHANGE, DRAFTS, OTHERWISE THAN AT SIGHT OR ON DEMAND.

Stamp Tax on Notes or Drafts.	33 Days and on Demand.	63 Days.	93 Days.	4 Months.	6 Months.	6 Mos. or Sight.
Over $20 to $200	01	02	03	04	06	10
" 200 " 400	02	04	06	08	12	20
" 400 " 600	03	06	09	12	18	30
" 600 " 800	04	08	12	16	24	40
" 800 " 1,000	05	10	15	20	30	50
" 1,000 " 1,200	06	12	18	24	36	60
" 1,200 " 1,400	07	14	21	28	42	70
" 1,400 " 1,600	08	16	24	32	48	80
" 1,600 " 1.800	09	18	27	36	54	90
" 1,800 " 2,000	10	20	30	40	60	1 00
" 2,000 " 2,200	11	22	33	44	66	1 10
" 2,200 " 2,400	12	24	36	48	72	1 20
" 2,400 " 2,600	13	26	39	52	78	1 30
" 2,600 " 2,800	14	28	42	36	84	1 40
" 2,800 " 3,000	15	30	45	60	90	1 50
" 3,000 " 3.200	16	32	48	64	96	1 60
" 3,200 " 3,400	17	34	51	68	1 02	1 70
" 3,400 " 3,600	18	36	54	72	1 08	1 80
" 3,600 " 3,800	19	38	57	76	1 14	1 90
" 3,800 " 4,000	20	40	60	80	1 20	2 00
" 4,000 " 4,200	21	42	63	84	1 26	2 10
" 4,200 " 4,400	22	44	66	88	1 32	2 20
" 4,400 " 4,600	23	46	69	92	1 38	2 30
" 4,600 " 4,800	24	48	72	96	1 44	2 40
" 4,800 " 5,000	25	50	75	1 00	1 50	2 50
5,000.....	25	50	75	1 00	1 50	2 50
10,000.....	50	1 00	1 50	2 00	3 00	5 00
15,000.....	75	1 50	2 25	3 00	4 50	7 50
20,000.....	1 00	2 00	3 00	4 00	6 00	10 00
25,000.....	1 25	2 50	3 75	5 00	7 50	12 50
30,000.....	1 50	3 00	4 50	6 00	9 00	15 00
35,000.....	1 75	3 50	5 25	7 00	10 50	17 50
40,000.....	2 00	4 00	6 00	8 00	12 00	20 00
45,000.....	2 25	4 50	6 75	9 00	13 50	22 50
50,000.....	2 50	5 00	7 50	10 00	15 00	25 00
60,000.....	3 00	6 00	9 00	12 00	18 00	30 00
70,000.....	3 50	7 00	10 50	14 00	21 00	35 00
80,000.....	4 00	8 00	12 00	16 00	24 00	40 00
90,000.....	4 50	9 00	13 50	18 00	27 00	45 00
100,000.....	5 00	10 00	15 00	20 00	30 00	50 00

THE NEW UNITED STATES BANKING BILL.*

An act to provide a national currency, secured by a pledge of United States stocks, and to provide for the circulation and redemption thereof.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Treasury Department a separate bureau, which shall be charged with the execution of this and all other laws that may be passed by Congress respecting the issue and regulation of a national currency secured by United States bonds. The chief officer of the said bureau shall be denominated the Controller of the Currency, and shall be under the general direction of the Secretary of the Treasury. He shall be appointed by the President, on the nomination of the Secretary of the Treasury, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and shall hold his office for the term of five years unless sooner removed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; he shall receive an annual salary of five thousand dollars; he shall have a competent deputy, appointed by the Secretary, whose salary shall be two thousand five hundred dollars, and who shall possess the power and perform the duties attached by law to the office of Controller during a vacancy in such office and during his absence or inability; he shall employ, from time to time, the necessary clerks to discharge such duties as he shall direct, which clerks shall be appointed and classified by the Secretary of the Treasury in the manner now provided by law. Within fifteen days from the time of notice of his appointment the Controller shall take and subscribe the oath of office prescribed by the Constitution and laws of the United States; and he shall give to the United States a bond in the penalty of one hundred thousand dollars, with not less than two responsible freeholders as sureties, to be approved by the Secretary of the Treasury, conditioned for the faithful discharge of the duties of his office. The Deputy Controller so appointed shall also take the oath of office prescribed by the Constitution and laws of the United States, and shall give a like bond in the penalty of fifty thousand dollars. The Controller and Deputy Controller shall not, either directly or indirectly, be interested in any association issuing national currency under the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the Controller of the Currency, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, shall devise a seal with suitable inscriptions for his office, a description of which, with a certificate of approval by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be filed in the office of the Secretary of the State with an impression thereof, which shall thereupon become the seal of office of the Controller of the Currency, and the same may be renewed when necessary. Every certificate, assignment, and conveyance executed by the Controller, in pursuance of any authority conferred on him by law, and sealed with his seal of office,

* This is an official copy, and may be relied upon as being correct in every particular.

shall be received in evidence in all places and courts whatsoever; and all copies of papers in the office of the Controller, certified by him and authenticated by the said seal, shall in all cases be evidence equally and in like manner as the original. An impression of such seal directly on the paper shall be as valid as if made on wax or wafer.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be assigned to the Controller of the Currency by the Secretary of the Treasury suitable rooms in the Treasury building for conducting the business of the currency bureau, in which shall be safe and secure fire-proof vaults, in which it shall be the duty of the Controller to deposit and safely keep all the plates and other valuable things belonging to his department; and the Controller shall from time to time furnish the necessary furniture, stationery, fuel, lights, and other proper conveniences for the transaction of the said business.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the term "United States bonds," as used in this act, shall be construed to mean all coupon and registered bonds now issued, or that may hereafter be issued, on the faith of the United States by the Secretary of the Treasury in pursuance of law.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That associations for carrying on the business of banking may be formed by any number of persons, not less in any case than five.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That persons uniting to form such an association shall, under their hands and seals, make a certificate which shall specify—

First. The name assumed by such association.

Second. The place where its operations of discount and deposit are to be carried on, designating the State, territory, or district, and also the particular city, town, or village.

Third. The amount of its capital stock, and the number of shares into which the same shall be divided; which capital stock shall not be less than fifty thousand dollars; and in cities whose population is over ten thousand persons the capital stock shall not be less than one hundred thousand dollars.

Fourth. The names and places of residence of the shareholders, and the number of shares held by each of them.

Fifth. The time when such association shall commence.

Sixth. A declaration that said certificate is made to enable such persons to avail themselves of the advantages of this act.

The said certificate shall be acknowledged before a judge of some court of record or a notary public, and the acknowledgment thereof, certified under the seal of such court or notary, and shall be transmitted, together with a copy of the articles of association which shall have been adopted, to the Controller of the Currency, who shall record and carefully preserve the same in his office. Copies of such certificate, duly certified by the Controller, and authenticated by his seal of office, shall be legal and sufficient evidence in all courts and places within the United States, or the jurisdiction of the government thereof, of the existence of such association, and of every other matter or thing which could be proved by the production of the original certificate.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That at least thirty per centum of the capital stock of such association shall be paid in at the time of the commencement of its banking business, and the remainder of the capital stock of such association shall be paid in instalments of at least ten per centum on the whole amount to which the association shall be limited, as frequently as one instalment at the end of each succeeding two months from the time of the commencement of its banking operations, until the whole of the capital stock shall be paid in.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That if any shareholder, or his assignee, shall fail to pay any instalment on the stock when the same is required by the foregoing section to be paid, the directors of such association may sell the stock held by such delinquent shareholder, at public auction, having given three weeks' previous notice thereof in a newspaper published and of general circulation in the city where the association is located, if the same be located in a city, and if not so located, then in a newspaper printed, or of general circulation, in the county where the same is located, to any person who will pay the highest price therefor, and not less than the amount then due thereon, with the expenses of advertisement and sale; and the excess, if any, shall be paid to the delinquent shareholder. If no bidder can be found who will pay for such stock the amount due thereon to the association, and the costs of advertisement and sale, the amount previously paid shall be forfeited to the association, and such stock may subsequently be sold as the directors may order.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever a certificate shall have been transmitted to the Controller of the Currency, as provided in this act, and the association transmitting the same shall notify the Controller that at least thirty per centum of its capital stock has been paid as aforesaid, and that such association has complied with all the provisions of this act required to be complied with before such association shall be authorized to commence the business of banking, and that such association is desirous of commencing such business, the Controller shall immediately proceed, in such manner as he shall by general rules prescribe, to examine the condition of such association; to ascertain especially the amount of money paid in on account of its capital stock; the name and place of residence of each of the directors of such association, and the amount of the capital stock of which each is the *bona fide* owner, and generally whether such association has complied with all the requirements of this act to entitle it to engage in the business of banking; and shall cause to be made, and attested by the oaths of a majority of the directors and by the president or cashier of such association, a statement of all the facts necessary to enable the Controller to determine whether such association is lawfully entitled to commence the business of banking under this act.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That if, upon a careful examination of the facts so reported, and of any other facts which may come to the knowledge of the Controller, whether by means of a special commission appointed by him for the purpose of inquiring into the condition of such association, or otherwise, it shall appear that such association is lawfully entitled to commence the business of banking, the Controller shall give to such association a certificate under his hand and official seal, showing that such association has complied with all the provisions of this act required to be complied with before being entitled to commence the busi-

ness of banking under it, and that such association is authorized to commence said business accordingly; and it shall be the duty of such association to cause said certificate to be published in some newspaper, published in the city or county where such association is located, for at least sixty days next after the issuing thereof: *Provided*, That if no newspaper is published in such city or county, such certificate shall be published as the Controller of the Currency shall direct.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That every association formed pursuant to the provisions of this act may make and use a common seal, and shall have succession by the name designated in its articles of association and for the period limited therein, not, however, exceeding twenty years from the passage of this act; by such name may make contracts, sue and be sued, complain and defend in any court of law or equity as fully as natural persons, and may make by-laws, approved by the Controller of the Currency, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States or the provisions of this act, for the election of directors, the management of its property, the regulation of its affairs, and for the transfer of its stock; and shall have power to carry on the business of banking by obtaining and issuing circulating notes in accordance with the provisions of this act; by discounting bills, notes, and other evidences of debt; by receiving deposits; by buying and selling gold and silver bullion, foreign coins, and bills of exchange; by loaning money on real and personal security in the manner specified in their articles of association for the purposes authorized by this act, and by exercising such incidental powers as shall be necessary to carry on such business; to choose one of their number as president of such association, and to appoint a cashier and such other officers and agents as their business may require; and to remove such president, cashier, officers, and agents at pleasure, and appoint others in their place; and their usual business shall be transacted in banking offices located at the places specified respectively in its certificate of association, and not elsewhere.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the shares of associations formed under this act shall be deemed personal property, and shall be transferable on the books of the association in such manner as may be prescribed in the by-laws or articles of association; and every person becoming a shareholder by such transfer shall, in proportion to his shares, succeed to all the rights and liabilities of the prior holder of such shares; and no change shall be made in the articles of association by which the rights, remedies, or security of the existing creditors of the association shall be impaired. For all debts contracted by such association for circulation, deposit, or otherwise, each shareholder shall be liable to the amount at their par value of the shares held by him in addition to the amount invested in such shares.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for any association formed under this act, by its articles of association, to provide for an increase of its capital from time to time as may be deemed expedient, subject to the limitations of this act; but no such increase shall be valid until the increased capital shall be paid in and notice thereof shall have been transmitted to the Controller of the Currency and his certificate obtained specifying the amount of such increase of capital stock, and that the same has been duly paid to such association.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for any such association to purchase, hold, and convey real estate as follows:

First. Such as shall be necessary for its immediate accommodation in the transaction of its business.

Second. Such as shall be mortgaged to it in good faith by way of security for loans made by such association, or for moneys due thereto.

Third. Such as shall be conveyed to it in satisfaction of debts previously contracted in the course of its dealings.

Fourth. Such as it shall purchase at sales under judgments, decrees, or mortgages held by such association.

Such association shall not purchase or hold réal estate in any other case or for any other purpose than as specified in this section.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That every association, after having complied with the provisions of this act preliminary to the commencement of banking business under its provisions, shall transfer and deliver to the Treasurer of the United States any United States bonds bearing interest, to an amount not less than one-third of the capital stock paid in, which bonds shall be deposited with the Treasurer of the United States, and by him safely kept in his office until the same shall be otherwise disposed of, in pursuance of the provisions of this act.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the making of any such transfer and delivery, the association making the same shall be entitled to receive from the Controller of the Currency circulating notes of different denominations, in blank, registered and countersigned as hereinafter provided, equal in amount to ninety per centum of the current market value of the United States bonds so transferred and delivered, but not exceeding the par value thereof, if bearing interest at the rate of six per centum, or of equivalent United States bonds bearing a less rate of interest; and at no time shall the total amount of such notes, issued to any such association, exceed the amount at such time actually paid in of its capital stock.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That the entire amount of circulating notes to be issued under this act shall not exceed three hundred millions of dollars. One hundred and fifty millions of which sum shall be apportioned to associations in the States, in the District of Columbia, and in the Territories, according to representative population, and the remainder shall be apportioned by the Secretary of the Treasury among associations formed in the several States, in the District of Columbia, and in the Territories, having due regard to the existing banking capital, resources, and business of such States, District and Territories.

SEC. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That, in order to furnish suitable notes for circulation, the Controller of the Currency is hereby authorized and required, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to cause plates to be engraved, in the best manner to guard against counterfeiting and fraudulent alterations, and to have printed therefrom and numbered, such quantity of circulating notes, in blank, of the denominations of five dollars, ten dollars, twenty dollars, fifty dollars, one hundred dollars, five hundred dollars, and one thousand dollars, as may be required to supply, under this act, the associations entitled to receive the same; which notes shall express upon their face that they are secured by United States bonds,

deposited with the Treasurer of the United States and issued under the provisions of this act, which statement shall be attested by the written or engraved signatures of the Treasurer and Register, and by the imprint of the seal of the treasury; and shall also express upon their face the promise of the association receiving the same, to pay on demand, attested by the signatures of the president or vice-president and cashier; and the said notes shall bear such devices and such other statements, and shall be in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall, by regulation direct.

SEC. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That the plates and special dies to be procured by the Controller of the Currency for the printing of such circulating notes shall remain under his control and direction, and the expenses necessarily incurred in executing the provisions of this act, respecting the procuring of such notes, shall be audited and paid as contingent expenses of the Treasury Department; and for the purpose of reimbursing the same, and all other expenses incurred under this act, and in lieu of all taxes upon the circulation authorized by this act,* or upon the bonds deposited for security of the same, such association organized under this act shall semi-annually, on the first days of January and July, after its organization, pay to the Controller of the Currency, in lawful money of the United States, one per centum on the amount of circulating notes received by such association, and in default thereof the Treasurer of the United States is hereby authorized to reserve and retain one per centum on the amount of said bonds so deposted, at each semi-annual payment of interest thereon; and all sums so re-erved and retained shall be paid into the treasury under the direction of the Secretary, and every bank, banking association, or corporation not organized under the provisions of this act, issuing notes calculated or intended to circulate as money, shall, on the first day of July next, and regularly on the first days of January and July thereafter, make and deliver to the Controller of the Currency a true and accurate return of the gross amount of notes issued by it, whether in circulation, or in its vaults, or on deposit elsewhere; and in default of any such return, the bank, banking association, or corporation so failing to make return, shall pay to the United States a penalty of two per centum upon its entire capital stock, to be recovered, for the use of the United States, in any court of competent jurisdiction.

SEC. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That after any such association shall have caused its promise to pay such notes on demand to be signed by the president or vice-president and cashier thereof, in such manner as to make them obligatory promissory notes, payable on demand, at its places of business, such association is hereby authorized to issue and circulate the same as money; and the same shall be received at par in all parts of the United States in payment of taxes, excises, public lands, and all other dues to the United States, except for duties on imports, and also for all salaries and other debts and demands owing by the United States to individuals, corporations, and associations within the United States, except interest on public debt; and no such association shall issue post notes or any other note to circulate as money than such as are authorized by the foregoing provisions of this act.

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* Modified by section 8 of the "Act to provide ways and means for the support of the government," approved March —, 1863, which section is printed for convenience of reference at the end of this act.

SEC. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That all transfers of United States bonds which shall be made by any association as security for circulating notes under the provisions of this act, shall be made to the Treasurer of the United States, with a memorandum written or printed on the certificate of such bonds, and signed by the cashier or some other officer of the association making the deposit, stating that it is held in trust for the association on whose behalf such transfer is made, as security for the redemption and payment of the circulating notes delivered to such association; and no transfer of any such bonds by the Treasurer shall be deemed valid or of binding force and effect, unless sanctioned by the order or request of the Controller of the Currency upon the Treasurer. It shall be the duty of the Controller of the Currency to keep in his office a book in which shall be entered the name of every association from whose accounts such transfer is made by the Treasurer, and the name of the party to whom such transfer is made, unless such transfer is made in blank, in which case the fact shall be stated in said book, and in either case the par value of the bonds so transferred shall be entered therein; and it shall be the duty of the Controller, immediately upon countersigning and entering the same, to advise by mail the association from whose account such transfer was made. the kind of bonds, and the amount thereof so transferred.

SEC. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Controller of the Currency to countersign and enter in the book, in the manner aforesaid, every transfer or assignment of any bonds held by the Treasurer presented for his signature; and the Controller shall have at all times during office hours access to the books of the Treasurer, for the purpose of ascertaining the correctness of the transfer or assignment presented to him to countersign; and the Treasurer shall have the like access to the book above mentioned, kept by the Controller, during office hours, to ascertain the correctness of the entries in the same.

SEC. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of either the president or cashier of every banking association having stocks deposited in the office of the Treasurer of the United States, once or more in each fiscal year, and at such time or times during the ordinary business hours as said officer or officers may select, to examine and compare the bonds so pledged with the books of said department, and, if found correct, to execute to the said Treasurer a certificate setting forth the different kinds and amounts thereof, and that the same are in the possession and custody of the Treasurer at the date of such certificate. Such examination may be made by an agent of such association duly appointed in writing for that purpose, whose certificate before mentioned shall be of like force and validity as if executed by such president or cashier.

SEC. 24. *And be it further enacted*, That every association issuing circulating notes under the provisions of this act shall make a quarterly report to the Controller of the Currency, commencing on the first day of the quarter of the year next succeeding the organization of such association, and continuing on the first days of each succeeding quarter in every year thereafter, which report shall be verified by the oath or affirmation of the president and cashier, and all wilful false swearing in respect to such report shall be perjury, and subject to the punishment prescribed by law for such offence. The report hereby required shall be in the form prescribed by the controller, and shall contain a true statement of the condition of the association mak-

ing such report, before the transaction of any business on the morning of the day specified next preceding the date of such report, in respect of the following items and particulars, to wit: Loans and discounts, overdrafts due from banks, amount due from the directors of the association, real estate, specie, cash items, stocks, bonds, and promissory notes, bills of solvent banks, bills of suspended banks, loss and expense account, capital, circulation, profits, amount due to banks, amount due to individuals and corporations other than banks, amount due the Treasurer of the United States, amount due to depositors on demand, amount due not included under either of the above heads. And it shall be the duty of the controller to publish full abstracts of such reports together in two newspapers, to be designated by him for that purpose—one in the city of Washington and the other in the city of New York—exhibiting the items of capital, circulation, and deposits, specie and cash items, public securities and private scurities; and the separate report of each association shall be published in a newspaper published in the place where such association is established, or, if there be no newspaper at such place, then in a newspaper published at the capital of the State, at the expense of the association making such report. In addition to the quarterly reports required by this section, every association located and doing business in the cities of Boston, Providence, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans shall publish, or cause to be published, on the morning of the first Tuesday in each month, in a newspaper printed in the city in which the association making such report is located, to be designated by the Controller of the Currency, a statement, under the oath of the president or cashier, showing the condition of the association making such statement, on the morning of the day next preceding the date of such statement, in respect to the following items and particulars, to wit: average amount of loans and discounts, specie, deposits, and circulation.

Sec. 25. *And be it further enacted*, That if any such association shall at any time fail to redeem, in the lawful money of the United States, any of its circulating notes, when payment thereof shall be lawfully demanded, during the usual hours of business, at the office of such association, the holder may cause the same to be protested, in one package, by a notary public, unless the president or cashier of the association shall offer to waive demand and notice of the protest, and shall, in pursuance of such offer, make, sign, and deliver to the party making such demand an admission in writing, stating the time of the demand, the amount demanded, and the fact of the non-paymenf thereof; and such notary public, on making such protest, or upon receiving such admission, shall forthwith forward such admission or notice of protest to the Controller of the Currency; and after such default it shall not be lawful for the association suffering the same to pay out any of its notes, discount any notes or bills, or otherwise prosecute the business of banking, except to receive and safely keep money belonging to it, and to deliver special deposits: *Provided, however*, That if satisfactory proof be produced to such notary public that the payment of any such notes is restrained by order of any court of competent jurisdiction, such notary public shall not protest the same; and when the holder of such notes shall cause more than one note or package to be protested on the same day, he shall not receive pay for more than one protest.

Sec. 26. *And be it further enacted*, That on receiving notice that any such association has failed to redeem any of its circulating notes, as speci-

fied in the next preceding section, the Controller of the Currency, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, may appoint a special agent, (of whose appointment immediate notice shall be given to such association,) who shall immediately proceed to ascertain whether such association has refused to pay its circulating notes, in the lawful money of the United States, when demanded as aforesaid, and report to the controller the facts so ascertained; and if, from such protest or the report so made, the controller shall be satisfied that such association has refused to pay its circulating notes as aforesaid, and is in default, he shall, within thirty days after he shall have received notice of such failure, declare the United States bonds and securities pledged by such association forfeited to the United States, and the same shall thereupon be forfeited accordingly, and thereupon the controller shall immediately give notice in such manner as the Secretary of the Treasury shall, by general rules or otherwise, direct, to the holders of the circulating notes of such association to present them for payment at the treasury of the United States, and the same shall be paid as presented; whereupon said controller may, in his discretion, cancel an equal amount of bonds pledged by such association, equal at current market rates, not exceeding par, to the notes paid; and it shall be lawful for the Secretary of the Treasury, from time to time, to make such regulations respecting the disposition to be made of such circulating notes after presentation thereof for payment as aforesaid, and respecting the perpetuation of the evidence of the payment thereof, as may seem to him proper; but all such notes, on being paid, shall be cancelled; and for any deficiency in the proceeds of the bonds pledged by such association, when disposed of as hereinafter specified, to reimburse to the United States the amount so expended in paying the circulating notes of such association, the United States shall have a first and paramount lien upon all the assets of such association, and such deficiency shall be made good out of such assets in preference to any and all other claims whatsoever, except the necessary costs and expenses of administering the same.

Sec. 27. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the controller shall become satisfied, as in the last preceding section specified, that any such association has refused to pay its circulating notes as therein mentioned, he may, instead of cancelling the United States bonds pledged by such association, as provided in the next preceding section, cause so much of them as may be necessary to redeem the outstanding circulating notes of such association to be sold at public auction in the city of New York, after giving thirty days' notice of such sale to such association.

Sec. 28. *And be it further enacted*, That the Controller of the Currency may, if he shall be of opinion that the interests of the United States will be best promoted thereby, sell at private sale any of the stock so transferred to him by such association, and receive therefor either money or the circulating notes of such failing association: *Provided*, That no such bonds shall be sold by private sale for less than par, nor less than the market value thereof at the time of sale: *And provided, further*, That no sales of any such stock, either public or private, shall be complete until the transfer thereof shall have been made with the formalities prescribed in this act.

Sec. 29. *And be it further enacted*, That on becoming satisfied, as specified in this act, that any such association has refused to pay its circulating notes as therein mentioned, and is in default, the Controller of the Currency may forthwith appoint a receiver, and require of him such bond and secu-

rity as he shall deem proper, who, under the direction of the controller, shall take possession of the books, records, and assets of every description of such association, collect all debts, dues, and claims belonging to such association, and, upon the order of a court of record of competent jurisdiction, may sell or compound all bad or doubtful debts, and, on a like order, sell all the real and personal property of such association, on such terms as the court shall direct; and such receiver shall pay over all moneys so made to the Treasurer of the the United States, and also make report to the Controller of the Currency of all his acts and proceedings. The controller shall thereupon cause notice to be given, by advertisement in such newspapers as he may direct, for three consecutive months, calling on all persons who may have claims against such association to present the same, and to make legal proof thereof. And from time to time the controller, after full provision shall have been first made for refunding to the United States any such deficiency in redeeming the notes of such association as is mentioned in this act, shall make a ratable dividend of the moneys so paid over to him by such receiver on all such claims as may have been so proved or adjudicated in a court of competent jurisdiction; and from time to time, as the proceeds of the assets of such association shall be paid over to him, he shall make further dividends, as aforesaid, on all claims previously proved or adjudicated; and the remainder of such proceeds, if any, shall be paid over to the shareholders of such association, or their legal reprepresentatives, in proportion to the stock by them respectively held: *Provided, however*, That if any such association against which proceedings have been so instituted on account of any alleged refusal to redeem its circulating notes as aforesaid, shall deny having failed to do so, such association may, at any time within ten days after such association shall have been notified of the appointment of an agent, as provided in this act, apply to the nearest circuit, or district, or territorial court of the United States, to enjoin further proceedings in the premises; and such court, after citing the Controller of the Currency to show cause why further proceedings should not be enjoined, and after the decision of the court or finding of a jury that such association has not refused to redeem its circulating notes, when legally presented, in the lawful money of the United States, shall make an order enjoining the controller, and any receiver acting under his direction, from all further proceedings on account of such alleged refusal.

SEC. 30. *And be it further enacted*, That the bonds transferred to the Treasurer of the United States, as hereinbefore provided, by any banking association for the security of its circulating notes, shall be held exclusively for that purpose, until such notes shall be redeemed, except as provided in this act; but the Controller of the Currency may give to any such banking association powers of attorney to receive and appropriate to its own use the interest on the bonds which shall have been so transferred to the Treasurer by it; but such powers shall become inoperative whenever such banking association shall fail to redeem its circulating notes as aforesaid. And said Controller may direct the return of any of said bonds to the banking association which transferred the same, upon the surrender to him and the cancellation of a proportionate amount of such circulating notes: *Provided*, That ninety per centum of the current market value of the remaining bonds which shall have been transferred by the banking association offering to surrender such circulating notes shall be equal to the amount of all the circulating notes retained by such banking association: *And provided, fur-*

ther, That there shall have been no failure by such association to redeem its circulating notes, and that there shall have been no other violation by such association of any of the provisions of this act for the security of the creditors of such association; nor shall the Treasurer be required to surrender such bonds in fractional sums of less than one thousand dollars. And if, at any time after said bonds shall be deposited with the Treasurer of the United States, as aforesaid, the market or cash value shall be reduced, the Controller of the Currency is hereby authorized to demand and receive the amount of such appreciation in other United States bonds at cash value, or in money, from the association receiving said bills, to be deposited with the Treasurer of the United States, as long as such depreciation continues.

SEC. 31. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the price of any of the bonds pledged, as aforesaid, for the redemption of the circulating notes of any such banking association shall be at the stock exchange in the city of New York for four consecutive weeks, at a rate less than that at which they shall have been estimated when so pledged, and such depreciation shall not have been made good by a deposit of other bonds or money, it shall be the duty of the Controller of the Currency to notify the Treasurer of the United States of such fact, and the payment of interest upon such depreciated bonds shall be suspended; and such interest shall be retained by said Treasurer until the same, when added to the current market value of the bonds so pledged, to be ascertained as before provided, shall be equal to the amount for which such bonds were pledged: *Provided*, That it shall be the duty of the Controller of the Currency, at the expiration of every period of three months, to cause the whole of the sums so retained, and then remaining in the treasury of the United States, to be invested in United States bonds, in the name of the Controller of the Currency, in trust for the respective associations by which the bonds on which such interest shall have accrued shall have been pledged. And whenever the price of such depreciated bonds at the stock exchange in New York shall rise to the price at which they were pledged, and so remained for four consecutive weeks, such investment shall be assigned to such association, and all accruing interest on such pledged bonds shall thereafter be paid to such association, on demand thereof.

SEC. 32. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Controller of the Currency to receive worn-out or mutilated circulating notes issued by any such banking association, and to deliver in place thereof to such association other blank circulating notes to an equal amount. And such worn out or mutilated notes, after a memorandum shall have been entered in the proper books, in accordance with such regulations as may be established by the Controller, as well as all circulating notes which shall have been paid or surrendered to be cancelled, shall be burned to ashes in presence of three persons, one to be appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury, one by the Controller of the Currency, and one by the Treasurer of the United States, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe; and in case such notes shall have been delivered to the Controller by an officer or agent of such association, then in the presence, also, of such officer or agent. And a certificate of such burning, signed by the parties so appointed, shall be made in the books of the Controller, and a duplicate thereof given to such officer or agent.

SEC. 33. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be unlawful for any officer acting under the provisions of this act to countersign or deliver to

any such association, or to any other company or person, any circulating notes contemplated by this act, except as hereinbefore provided, and in accordance with the true intent and meaning of this act. And any officer who shall violate the provisions of this section shall be deemed guilty of a high misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by fine not exceeding double the amount so countersigned and delivered, and imprisonment not exceeding fifteen years, at the discretion of the court in which he shall be tried.

SEC. 34. *And be it further enacted*, That all fees for protesting the notes issued by any such banking association shall be paid by the person procuring the protest to be made, and such banking association shall be liable therefor; but no part of the stock pledged by such banking association as aforesaid, shall be applied to the payment of such fees. And all expenses of any preliminary or other examinations into the condition of any association shall be paid by such association; and all expenses of any receivership shall be paid out of the assets of such association before distribution of the proceeds thereof.

SEC. 35. *And be it further enacted*, That the stockholders, collectively, of any such association shall at no time be liable to such association, either as principal debtors or sureties, or both, to an amount greater than three-fifths of the capital stock actually paid in and remaining undiminished by losses or otherwise; nor shall the directors be so liable, except to such amount and in such manner as shall be prescribed by the by-laws of such association, adopted by its stockholders to regulate such liabilities.

SEC. 36. *And be it further enacted*, That the capital stock of any association formed under this act shall be divided into shares of one hundred dollars each, and shall be assignable on the books of the association in such manner as its by-laws shall prescribe; but no shareholder in any association under this act shall have power to sell or transfer any share held in his own right so long as he shall be liable, either as principal, debtor, surety, or otherwise, to the association for any debt which shall have become due and remain unpaid, nor in any case shall such shareholder be entitled to receive any dividend, interest, or profit on such shares so long as such liabilities shall continue; but all such dividends, interests, and profits shall be retained by the association, and applied to the discharge of such liabilities. And no stock shall be transferred without the consent of a majority of the directors while the holder thereof is thus indebted to the association.

SEC. 37. *And be it further enacted*, That no banking association shall take, as security for any loan or discount, a lien upon any part of its capital stock; but the same security, both in kind and amount, shall be required of shareholders as of other persons. And no such banking association shall be the purchaser or holder of any portion of its capital stock, or of the capital stock of any other incorporated company, unless such purchase shall be necessary to prevent loss upon a debt previously contracted in good faith, on security which, at the time, was deemed adequate to insure the payment of such debt, independent of any lien upon such stock, or in case of forfeiture of stock for the non-payment of instalments due thereon; and stock so purchased or acquired shall in no case be held by such association so purchasing for a longer period of time than six months, if the same can, within that time, be sold for what the stock cost.

SEC. 38. *And be it further enacted*, That in all elections of directors, and in deciding all questions at meetings of shareholders, each shareholder shall

be entitled to one vote on each share of stock held by him. Shareholders may vote by proxies duly authorized in writing; but no officer, clerk, teller, or bookkeeper of such association shall act as proxy; and no stockholder whose liability is past due and unpaid shall be allowed to vote.

SEC. 39. *And be it further enacted*, That the affairs of every such association shall be managed by not less than five nor more than nine directors, one of whom shall be president of the association. Every director shall, during his whole term of service, be a citizen of the United States and a resident of the State in which such association is located. At least three-fourths of the directors shall have resided in the State in which such association is located one year next preceding their election as directors; and each director shall own, in his own right, at least one per centum of the capital stock of such association, not exceeding two hundred thousand dollars, and the half of one per centum of its capital if over two hundred thousand dollars. Each director shall take an oath that he will, so far as the duty devolves on him, diligently and honestly administer the affairs of such association, and will not knowingly violate, or willingly permit to be violated, any of the provisions of this act, and that he is the bona fide owner, in his own right, of the shares of stock standing in his name on the books of the association, and that the same is not hypothecated, or in any way pledged, as security for any loan obtained or debt owing to the association of which he is a director, which oath, subscribed by himself, and certified by the officer before whom it is taken, shall be immediately transmitted to the Controller of the Currency, and by him filed and preserved in his office.

SEC. 40. *And be it further enacted*, That the directors of any such association first elected shall hold their places until their successors shall be elected and qualified. All subsequent elections shall be held annually, on such day in the month of January as the stockholders of said association may prescribe; and the directors so elected shall hold their places for one year, and until their successors are elected and qualified. But any director removing from the State, or ceasing to be the owner of the requisite amount of stock, shall thereby vacate his place. Any vacancy in the board shall be filled by appointment by the remaining directors. The director so appointed shall hold his place until the next annual election; and if, from any cause, an election of directors shall not be made at the time appointed, the association shall not for that cause be dissolved, but an election may be held on any subsequent day, thirty days' notice thereof having been given in a newspaper printed, or of general circulation, in the city, town, or county in which the association is located; and if no newspaper is published in such city, town, or county, such notice shall be published in a newspaper in the county adjoining.

SEC. 41. *And be it further enacted*, That every such association shall at all times have on hand, in lawful money of the United States, an amount equal to at least twenty-five per centum of the aggregate amount of its outstanding notes of circulation and its deposits; and whenever the amount of its outstanding notes of circulation and its deposits shall exceed the above-named proportion for the space of twelve days, or whenever such lawful money of the United States shall at any time fall below the amount of twenty-five per centum of its circulation and deposits, such association shall not increase its liabilities by making any new loans or discounts otherwise than by discounting or purchasing bills of exchange, payable at sight, nor make any dividend of its profits, until the required proportion between the

aggregate amount of its outstanding notes of circulation and its deposits and lawful money of the United States shall be restored: *Provided, however*, That clearing-house certificates, representing specie or lawful money specially deposited for the purpose of any clearing-house association, shall be deemed to be lawful money in the possession of any association belonging to such clearing-house holding and owning such certificates, and considered to be a part of the lawful money which such association is required to have, under the foregoing provisions of this section: *Provided, further*, That any balance due to any association organized under this act in other places from any association in the cities of Boston, Providence, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, or New Orleans, in good credit, subject to be drawn for at sight and available to redeem their circulating notes and deposits, may be deemed to be a part of the lawful money which such association, in other places than the cities of Boston, Providence, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans, is required to have by the foregoing provisions of this section to the extent of three-fifths of the said amount of twenty-five per centum required. And it shall be competent for the Controller of the Currency to notify any such association whose lawful money reserve, as aforesaid, shall fall below said proportion of twenty-five per centum, to make good such reserve, and if such association shall fail for thirty days thereafter so to make good its reserve of lawful money of the United States, the Controller may, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, appoint a receiver to wind up the business of such association, as provided in this act.

SEC. 42. *And be it further enacted*, That no association shall at any time be indebted, or in any way liable, to an amount exceeding the amount of its capital stock at such time actually paid in, and remaining undiminished by losses or otherwise, except on the following accounts, that is to say:

First. On account of its notes of circulation.

Second. On account of moneys deposited with, or collected by, such association.

Third. On account of bills of exchange or drafts drawn against money actually on deposit to the credit of such association, or due thereto.

Fourth. On account of liabilities to its stockholders, for money paid in on capital stock, and dividends thereon, and reserved profits.

SEC. 43. *And be it further enacted*, That no association shall, either directly or indirectly, pledge or hypothecate any of its notes of circulation, for the purpose of procuring money, to be paid in on its capital stock, or to be used in its banking operations, or otherwise.

SEC. 44. *And be it further enacted*, That no association, or any member thereof, shall, during the time it shall continue its banking operations, withdraw, or permit to be withdrawn, either in form of dividends, loans to stockholders for a longer time than six months, or in any other manner, any portion of its capital. And if losses shall at any time have been sustained by any such association equal to or exceeding its undivided profits then on hand, no dividend shall be made; and no dividend shall ever be made by any association, while it shall continue its banking operations, to an amount greater than its net profits then on hand, deducting therefrom its losses and bad debts. And all debts due to any association, on which interest is past due and unpaid for a period of six months, unless the same shall be well

secured, and shall be in process of collection, shall be considered bad debts within the meaning of this act.

Sec. 45. *And be it further enacted*, That the directors of every association shall, semi-annually, in the months of May and November, declare a dividend of so much of the profits of such association as they shall judge expedient; and on each dividend day the cashier shall make, and verify by his oath, a full, clear, and accurate statement of the condition of the association, as it shall be on that day after declaring the dividend; which statement shall contain—

First. The amount of the capital stock actually paid in and then remaining as the capital stock of such bank or association.

Secondly. The amount of the circulating notes of such association then in circulation.

Thirdly. The greatest amount in circulation at any time since the making of the last previous statement, as shall have been exhibited by the weekly statements of the cashier, specifying the times when the same occurred.

Fourthly. The amount of balances and debts of every kind due to other banks and banking associations.

Fifthly. The amount due to depositors.

Sixthly. The total amount of debts and liabilities of every description, and the greatest amount since the making of the last previous statement, specifying the time when the same accrued.

Seventhly. The total amount of dividend declared on the day of making the statement.

Eighthly. The amount of lawful money of the United States belonging to the association and in its possession at the time of making the statement.

Ninthly. The amount subject to be drawn at sight, in lawful money of the United States, then remaining on deposit with any associations, banks, or bankers; specifying the amounts so on deposit in the cities of Boston, Providence, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans.

Tenthly. The amount then on hand of bills or notes, issued by other banks and banking associations.

Eleventhly. The amount of balances due from other banks, bankers, and banking associations, excluding deposits subject to be drawn at sight as aforesaid.

Twelfthly. The amount on hand of bills, bonds, stocks, notes, and other evidences of debts, discounted or purchased by the association, specifying particularly the amount of suspended debt, the amount considered bad, the amount considered doubtful, and the amount in suit or judgment.

Thirteenthly. The value of the real and personal property held for the convenience of the association, specifying the amount of each.

Fourteenthly. The amount of real estate taken in payment of debts due to the association.

Fifteenthly. The amount of the undivided profits of the association.

Sixteenthly. The total amount of the liability to the association by the directors thereof, collectively, specifying the gross amount of such liabilities as principal debtor, and the gross amount of indorsers or sureties.

The statement thus made shall forthwith be transmitted to the Controller of the Currency.

SEC. 46. *And be it further enacted*, That every association may take, reserve, receive, and charge on any loan or discount made, or upon any note, bill of exchange, or other evidence of debt, such rate of interest or discount as is for the time the established rate of interest for delay in the payment of money, in the absence of contract between the parties, by the laws of the several States in which the associations are respectively located, and no more: *Provided, however*, That interest may be reserved or taken in advance, at the time of making the loan or discount, according to the usual rules of banking; and the knowingly taking, reserving, or charging of a rate of interest greater than that allowed by this section shall be held and adjudged a forfeiture of the debt or demand on which the same is taken, reserved, or charged; but the purchase, discount, or sale of a bill of exchange, drawn on actually existing values, and payable at another place than the place of such purchase, discount, or sale, at the current discount or premium, shall not be considered as taking, reserving, or charging interest.

SEC. 47. *And be it further enacted*, That the total liabilities of any person, or of any company or firm, (including in the liabilities of a company or firm the liabilities of the several members thereof,) to any association, including liabilities as acceptor of bona fide bills of exchange, payable out of the State where the association is located, shall at no time exceed one-third; exclusive of liabilities as acceptor, one-fifth; and exclusive of liabilities on such bills of exchange, one-tenth part of the amount of the capital stock of such association actually paid in.

SEC. 48. *And be it further enacted*, That no association shall, at any time, pay out on loans or discounts, or in purchasing drafts or bills of exchange, or in payment of deposits, nor shall it in any other mode put in circulation the notes of any bank or banking association, which notes shall not, at any such time, be receivable, at par, on deposit, and in payment of debts by the association so paying out or circulating such notes; nor shall it knowingly pay out or put in circulation any notes issued by any bank or banking association which at the time of such paying out or putting in circulation is not redeeming its circulating notes in lawful money of the United States.

SEC. 49. *And be it further enacted*, That all transfer of the notes, bonds, bills of exchange, and other evidences of debt owing to any association, or of deposits to its credit; all assignments of mortgages, sureties on real estate, or of judgments or decrees in its favor; all deposits of money, bullion, or other valuable thing for its use, or for the use of any of its shareholders or creditors; and all payments of money to either, made after the commission of an act of insolvency, or in contemplation thereof, with a view to prevent the application of its assets in the manner prescribed by this act, or with a view to the preference of one creditor to another, except in payment of its circulating notes, shall be utterly null and void.

SEC. 50. *And be it further enacted*, That if the directors of any association shall knowingly violate, or knowingly permit any of the officers, agents, or servants of the association to violate, any of the provisions of this act, all the rights, privileges, and franchises of the association, derived from this act, shall be thereby forfeited. Such violation shall, however, be determined and adjudged by a proper circuit, district, or territorial court of the United States, before the association shall be declared dissolved. And in cases of

such violation, every director who participated in or assented to the same shall be held liable in his personal and individual capacity for all damages which the association, its shareholders, or any other person, shall have sustained in consequence of such violation.

SEC. 51. *And be it further enacted*, That the Controller of the Currency, with the approbation of the Secretary of the Treasury, as often as shall be deemed necessary or proper, shall appoint a suitable person or persons to make an examination of the affairs of every banking association, which person shall not be a director or other officer in any association whose affairs he shall be appointed to examine, and who shall have power to make a thorough examination into all the affairs of the association, and, in doing so, to examine any of the officers and agents thereof on oath, and shall make a full and detailed report of the condition of the association to the Controller; and the association shall not be subject to any other visitorial powers than such as are authorized by this act, except such as are vested in the several courts of law and chancery. And every person appointed to make such examination shall receive for his services at the rate of five dollars for each day by him employed in such examination, and two dollars for every twenty-five miles he shall necessarily travel in the performance of his duty, which shall be paid by the association by him examined.

SEC. 52. *And be it further enacted*, That every president, director, cashier, teller, clerk, or agent of any association, who shall embezzle, abstract, or wilfully misapply any of the moneys, funds, or credits of the association, or shall without such authority, issue or put forth any certificate of deposit, draw any order or bill of exchange, make any acceptance, assign any note, bond, draft, bill of exchange, mortgage, judgment, or decree, or shall make any false entry in any book, report, or statement of the association, with intent, in either case, to injure or defraud any other company, body politic or corporate, or any individual person, or to deceive any officer or agent appointed to examine the affairs of any such association, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment not less than five nor more than ten years.

SEC. 53. *And be it further enacted*, That the president and cashier of every such association shall cause to be kept at all times a full and correct list of the names and residences of all the shareholders in the association, in the office where its business is transacted; and such list shall be subject to the inspection of all the shareholders and creditors of the association during business hours of each day in which business may be legally transacted; and a copy of such list, verified by the oath of such president or cashier, shall, at the beginning of every year, be transmitted to the Controller of the Currency, commencing on the first day of the first quarter after the organization of the association.

SEC. 54. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized, whenever, in his judgment, the public interest will be promoted thereby, to employ any of such associations, doing business under this act, as depositaries of the public moneys, except receipts from customs.

SEC. 55. *And be it further enacted*, That all suits and proceedings arising out of the provisions of this act, in which the United States or its officers or agents shall be parties, shall be conducted by the district attorneys of the several districts, under the direction and supervision of the Solicitor of the Treasury.

SEC. 56. *And be it further enacted*, That every person who shall muti-

late, cut, deface, disfigure, or perforate with holes, or shall unite or cement together, or do any other thing to any bank bill, draft, note, or other evidence of debt issued by any such association, or shall cause or procure the same to be done, with intent to render such bank bill, draft, note, or other evidence of debt unfit to be reissued by said association, shall upon conviction forfeit fifty dollars to the association who shall be injured thereby, to be recovered by action in any court having jurisdiction.

SEC. 57. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall falsely make, forge, or counterfeit, or willingly aid or assist in falsely making, forging, or counterfeiting any note in imitation of, or purporting to be in imitation of, the circulating notes issued under the provisions of this act, or shall pass, utter, or publish, or attempt to pass, utter, or publish any false, forged, or counterfeited note, purporting to be issued by any association doing a banking business under the provisions of this act, knowing the same to be falsely made, forged or counterfeited, or shall falsely alter, or cause or procure to be falsely altered, or willingly aid or assist in falsely altering any such circulating notes, issued as aforesaid, or shall pass, utter, or publish as true, any falsely altered or spurious circulating note issued, or purporting to have been issued, as aforesaid, knowing the same to be falsely altered or spurious, every such person shall be deemed and adjudged guilty of felony, and being thereof convicted by due course of law, shall be sentenced to be imprisoned and kept at hard labor for a period not less than five years nor more than fifteen years, and to be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars.

SEC. 58. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall make or engrave, or cause or procure to be made or engraved, or shall have in his custody or possession any engraved plate or block after the similitude of any plate from which any circulating notes issued as aforesaid shall have been printed, with intent to use such plate or block, or cause or suffer the same to be used, in forging or counterfeiting any of the notes issued as aforesaid, or shall have in his custody or possession any blank note or notes engraved and printed after the similitude of any notes issued as aforesaid, with intent to use such blanks, or cause or suffer the same to be used, in forging or counterfeiting any of the notes issued as aforesaid, or shall have in his custody or possession any paper adapted to the making of such notes, and similar to the paper upon which any such notes shall have been issued, with intent to use such paper, or cause or suffer the same to be used, in forging or counterfeiting any of the notes issued as aforesaid, every such person, being thereof convicted by due course of law, shall be sentenced to be imprisoned and kept to hard labor for a term not less than five nor more than fifteen years, and fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars.

SEC. 59. *And be it further enacted*, That suits, actions, and proceedings by and against any association under this act, may be had in any circuit, district, or territorial court of the United States held within the district in which such association may be established.

SEC. 60. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Controller of the Currency to report annually to Congress, at the commencement of its session—

First. A summary of the state and condition of every association from whom reports have been received the preceding year, at the several dates to which such reports refer, with an abstract of the whole amount of

banking capital returned by them, of the whole amount of their debts and liabilities, the amount of circulating notes outstanding, and the total amount of means and resources, specifiying the amount of specie held by them at the times of their several returns, and such other information in relation to said associations as, in his judgment, may be useful.

Second. A statement of the associations whose business has been closed during the year, with the amount of their circulation redeemed, and the amount outstanding.

Third. To suggest any amendment to the laws relative to banking by which the system may be improved, and the security of the billholders and depositors may be increased.

Fourth. To report the names and compensation of the clerks employed by him, and the whole amount of the expenses of the banking department during the year; and such report shall be made by or before the first day of December in each year, and the usual number of copies for the use of the Senate and House, and one thousand copies for the department, shall be printed by the public printer and in readiness for distribution on the first meeting of Congress.

Sec. 61. *And be it further enacted*, Tat any banking association or corporation lawfully in existence as a bank of circulation on the first day of January, anno Domini eighteen hundred and sixty-three, organized in any State, either under a special act of incorporation or a general banking law, may at any time within —— years after the passage of this act become an association under the provisions of this act; that in such case the certificate of association provided for by this act shall be signed by the directors of such banking association or corporation, and in addition to the specifications required by this act shall specify that such directors are authorized by the owners of two-thirds of the capital stock of such banking association or corporation to make such certificate of association, and such certificate of association shall thereafter have the same effect, and the same proceedings shall be had thereon, as is provided for as to other associations organized under this act. And such association or corporation thereafter shall have the same powers and privileges, and shall be subject to the same duties, responsbilities, and rules, in all respects, as is prescribed in this act for other associations organised under it, and shall be held and regarded as an association under this act.

Sec. 62. *And be it further enacted*, That any bank or banking association authorized by any State law to engage in the business of banking, and duly organized under such State law at the time of the passage of this act, and which shall be the holder and owner of United States bonds to the amount of fifty per centum of its capital stock, may transfer and deliver to the Treasurer of the United Stotes such bonds, or any part thereof, in the manner provided by this act; and upon making such transfer and delivery, such bank or banking association shall be entitled to receive from the Controller of the Currency circulating notes, as herein provided, usual in amount to eighty per centum of the amount of the bonds so tranferred and delivered.

Sec. 63. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the failure of any such State bank or banking association to redeem any of its circulating notes issued under the provisions of the preceding section, the Controller of the Currency shall, when satisfied that such default has been made, and within thirty days after notice of such default, proceed to declare the bonds

transferred and delivered to the Treasurer forfeited to the United States, and the same shall thereupon be forfeited accordingly; and thereupon the circulating notes which have been issued by such bank or banking association, shall be redeemed and paid at the treasury of the United States, in the same manner as other circulating notes issued under the provisions of this act are redeemed and paid.

SEC. 64. *And be it further enacted*, That the bonds forfeited, as provided in the last preceeding section, may be cancelled to an amount equal to the circulating notes redeemed and paid, or such bonds may be sold, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury; and after retaining out of the proceeds a sum sufficient to pay the whole amount of circulating notes for the redemption of which such bonds are held, the surplus, if any remains, shall be paid to the bank or banking association from which such bonds were received.

SEC. 65. *Be it further enacted*, That Congress reserves the right at any time to amend, alter, or repeal this act.

Approved February 25, 1863.

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Section eight of the "Act to provide ways and means for the support of the government," approved March —, 1863.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That all banks, associations, corporations, or individual issuing notes or bills for circulation as currency, shall be subject to and pay a duty of one per centum each half year from and after April first, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, upon the average amount of circulation of notes or bills as currency issued beyond the amount hereinafter named—that is to say, banks, associations, corporations, or individuals having a capital of not over one hundred thousand dollars, ninety per centum thereof; over one hundred thousand dollars and not over two hundred thousand dollars, eighty per centum thereof; over two hundred thousand dollars and not over three hundred thousand dollars, seventy per centum thereof; over three hundred thousand dollars and not over five hundred thousand dollars, sixty per centum thereof; over five hundred thousand and not over one million of dollars, fifty per centum thereof; over one million and not over one million and a half of dollars, forty per centum thereof; over one million and a half and not over two millions of dollars, thirty per centum thereof; over two millions of dollars, twenty-five per centum thereof. In the case of banks with branches, the duty herein provided for shall be imposed upon the circulation of the notes or bills of such branches severally, and not upon the aggregate circulationof all; and the amount of capital of each branch shall be considered to be the amount allotted to or used by such branch; andall such banks, banking associations, corporations. and individuals shall also be subject to and pay a duty of one-half of one per centum each half year from and after April first, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, upon the average amount of notes or bills not otherwise herein taxed and outstanding as currency during the six months next preceding the return hereinafter provided for; and the rates of tax or duty imposed on the circulation of associations

which may be organized under the act "To provide a national currency secured by a pledge of United States stocks, and to provide for the circulation and redemption thereof," approved February 25th, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, shall be the same as that imposed on the circulation and deposits of all banks, associations, corporations, or individuals, but shall be assessed and collected as required by said act. And all banks, associations, or corporations, and individuals issuing or reissuing notes or bills for circulation as currency after April first, eighteen hundred and sixty three, in sums representing any fractional part of a dollar, shall be subject to and pay a duty of five per centum each half year thereafter upon the amount of such fractional notes or bills so issued; and all banks, associations, corporations, and individuals receiving deposits of money subject to payments on checks or drafts, except savings institutions, shall be subject to a duty of one-eighth of one per centum each half year from and after April first, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, upon the average amounts of such deposits beyond the average amount of their circulating notes or bills lawfully issued and outstanding as currency. And a list or return shall be made and rendered within thirty days after the first day of October, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, and each six months thereafter, to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, which shall contain a true and faithful account of the amount of duties accrued, or which should accrue on the full amount of the fractional note circulation and on the average amount of all other circulation, and of all such deposits, for the six months next preceding, [as aforesaid, during the time when such duties remain unaccounted for.] And there shall be annexed to every such list or return a declaration, under oath or affirmation, to be made in form and manner as shall be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, of the president, or some other proper officer of said bank, association, or individual, respectively, that the same contains a true and faithful account of the duties which have accrued, or which should accrue, and not accounted for; and for any default in the delivery of such list or return with such declaration annexed, the bank, association, corporation, or individual making such default, shall forfeit, as a penalty, the sum of five hundred dollars. And such bank, association, corporation, or individual shall, upon rendering the list or return as aforesaid, pay to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue the amount of the duties due on such list or return, and in default thereof shall forfeit, as a penalty, the sum of five hundred dollars; and in case of neglect or refusal to make such list or return as aforesaid, or to pay the duties as aforesaid, for the space of thirty days after the time when said list should have been made or rendered, or when said duties shall have become due and payable, the assessment and collection shall be made according to the general provisions prescribed in an act entitled "An act to provide internal revenue to support the government and to pay interest on the public debt," approved July one, eighteen hundred and sixty-two.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

EUROPEAN SUGAR AND COFFEE TRADE FOR 1862.

BY H. E. MORING.

SUGAR.

We gave in the last No. of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the sugar trade of the United States for 1862. Below will be found the imports, stocks, and distribution of sugar at the principal European depots, for the twelve months ending December 31, 1862:

	Imports.		Stock, December 31.	
	1862.	1861.	1862.	1861.
Holland*.....tons	108,200	117,000	7,800	15,100
France†	232,290	215,448	72,904	48,440
Antwerp.....	13,976	21,442	2,529	1,512
Hamburg.....	28,500	27,500	5,000	5,500
Bremen	14,000	12,500	1,300	2,100
Trieste	22,767	14,775	6,516	3,080
Genoa.....	30,846	30,133	3,839	2,990
Leghorn.....	11,336	13,392	1,294	1,339
Continent.....	461,915	452,190	101,182	80,061
Great Britain.....	475,721	493,489	122,798	111,854
Total.....	937,636	945,679	223,980	191,915

Receipts and deliveries.	1862.	1861.	1860.
Total stock, January 1st.....tons	191,915	127,060	159,288
" receipts up to December 31st.	937,636	945,679	767,801
Total supply for 12 months...	1,129,551	1,072,739	977,089
Deduct stock December 31st.....	223,980	191,915	127,060
Distribution in 12 months.....	905,571	880,824	800,029
Average distribution for 12 months.	75,464	73,402	66,669
Distribution in December.....	41,244	66,156	45,426
Receipts in "	30,930	44,677	38,188
Average distribution first 11 months	78,850	73,369	66,588
Distribution in November.....	87,310	73,900	67,260
" in October.....	80,290	68,500	71,320
" in September.....	92,570	68,840	74,040
" in August.....	61,550	79,980	74,120

COFFEE.

The following table shows the imports and distribution of coffee at the

* Stock in first hands alone; all others in first and second hands.
† Exclusive of beet-root sugar.

principal European depots for the twelve months ending 31st December, 1862:

	Imports.		Stock December 31.	
	1862.	1861.	1862.	1861.
Holland.....tons	76,875	68,250	17,125	16,875
France.....	58,506	60,239	17,642	13,346
Antwerp.....	15,046	13,679	2,991	2,042
Hamburg.....	40,250	50,000	5,750	10,500
Bremen	4,700	6,830	820	780
Trieste.....	8,883	12,677	2,052	2,678
Genoa.....	6,383	5,489	490	624
Leghorn.....	1,339	1,919	268	312
Continent.....	211,982	219,083	47,138	47,157
Great Britain.....	36,073	33,133	8,789	8,788
Total.....	248,055	252,216	55,927	55,945

Receipts and deliveries.	1862.	1861.	1860.
Total stock, January 1st.....tons	55,945	42,832	39,705
" receipts up to December 31st...	248,055	252,216	225,893
Total supply for 12 months.....	304,000	295,048	265,598
Deduct stock, December 31st.....	55,927	55,945	42,832
Distribution in 12 months.....	248,073	239,103	222,766
Average distribution for 12 months...	20,673	19,925	18,564
" " first 11 months..	21,819	21,196	19,559
Distribution in December.....	7,129	4,365	7,443
Receipts in December.....	9,914	21,264	15,508
Distribution in November.....	12,470	12,790	8,120
" in October.....	27,620	26,160	26,160
" in September.....	30,600	25,460	31,880
" in August.....	18,240	30,040	19,620

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

We find in the Honolulu *Commercial Advertiser* the annual review of the trade of the Sandwich Islands, from which we make up the following:

The tables show that there has been an improvement both in the import and export trade, and that they are becoming more nearly equalized, which indicates a healthier state than has existed for several years. The total imports for the year are given at $998,239, while the exports foot up $838,424. These totals do not, however, represent the exact trade, inasmuch as each sum embraces goods simply bonded and re-exported again without paying duties. The quantity of bonded goods is very large —amounting to $259,069, or more than one-fourth the above total. A large portion of these bonded goods consist of oil, bone, or other cargo, landed for transhipment and export, and really ought not to appear in the imports. But as they have been placed there, they have also to be given among the exports when shipped away. How large this class of

goods is, we have no means of learning; but if we may judge from the duties given in the table as derived from bonded goods, $4,947, which represent goods to the value of $49,470, it must embrace nearly $200,000, after allowing for the spirits bonded. The *bona fide* imports have, therefore, been only about $800,000 for the year 1862, of which the tables show that $112,717 have been entered free of duty. Of this sum, goods to the value of $33,163 were imported for Hawaiian whalers, and $51,625 for agriculturists and mechanics.

That our readers may compare the statistics of the present year, with those of previous ones, we insert the following table, showing the commerce of the islands for the past seventeen years:

	Total imports.	Total exports.	Domestic produce exported.	Foreign merchandise re-exported.	Total custom-house receipts.
1862	$998,289 67	$838,424 61	$586,541 87	$251,882 74	$107,490 42
1861	761,109 57	659,774 72	476,872 74	182,901 98	100,115 56
1860	1,223,749 05	807,459 20	480,526 54	326,932 66	117,302 57
1859	1,555,558 74	931,329 27	628,575 21	302,754 06	132,129 37
1858	1,089,660 60	787,082 08	529,966 11	257,115 97	116,138 23
1857	1,130,165 41	645,526 10	423,303 91	222,222 91	140,777 02
1856	1,151,422 99	670,824 67	466,278 79	204,545 88	123,171 75
1855	1,383,169 87	572,601 49	274,741 67	297,859 82	158,411 90
1854	1,590,887 71	585,122 67	274,029 70	311,092 97	152,125 58
1853	1,401,975 86	472,996 83	281,599 17	191,397 66	155,650 17
1852	759,868 54	638,395 20	257,251 69	381,142 51	113,001 93
1851	1,823,821 68	691,281 49	309,828 94	381,402 55	160,602 19
1850	1,035,058 70	783,052 35	536,522 63	246,529 72	121,506 73
1849	729,839 44	477,845 81	279,734 74	198,102 07	83,231 32
1848	605 618 73	300,870 98	266,819 43	33,551 55	55,568 94
1847	710,138 52	264,226 63	209,018 53	57,208 07	48,801 25
1846	598,352 24	363,750 74	301,625 00	62,325 74	56,506 64

In each branch of trade there has been an improvement. While the duty paying imports have increased only about 14 per cent, the domestic exports have increased 24 per cent, and this notwithstanding a continued falling off in the whaling trade. The custom-house receipts show an increase of 7 per cent over the previous year. The number of merchant vessels given shows an increase more apparent than real, for of the total 113 merchantmen, of 48,687 tonnage, about one-fourth, or 26 vessels, of 17,783 tonnage, simply anchored outside to land mails or provision their ships.

In the importation of spirits there is a falling off of about 8 per cent —the total being 8,940 gallons; and in the duties derived from spirits ($23,895) a decrease of $3,400 from the receipts of 1861. This decrease is fully accounted for by the decreased number of seamen visiting the port. The average yearly receipts from the duties on spirits from 1853 to 1858 were over $67,000, showing a loss to the public treasury by the change in the tariff of over $44,000 per annum, or in that proportion for the amount imported.

In the foreign commerce there has been really no great improvement. The merchant tonnage arriving at the islands has increased only 2,753 tons, equal to two good sized empty clippers, which is the actual increase of vessels that touched outside the port. But while there is this small gain shown in the merchant service, there is a decrease of over one half in the whalemen.

RAILWAY, CANAL, AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

TOLLS AND TONNAGE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS FOR 1862.

THE revenue from our canals the past year shows a very satisfactory result. For this increase we are, in our opinion, indebted to the abundant crops and the blockade of the Mississippi. The Albany *Journal*, however, gives a comparative table, which will be found below, showing what the tolls *were* the past year, and how much less they would have been had the rates of 1857 or 1860 been followed, and concludes from it that this satisfactory result is due to the fact that the rates of tolls have been brought to a revenue standard. This conclusion we do not think is quite correct. For instance, the increase of canal tonnage from 1859 to 1862 was about 2,000,000 tons, while the increase of revenue during the same time was $3,140,833. Of course it is clear, therefore, that nearly the whole of this additional revenue comes from the increased tonnage, and not simply from increased rates of tolls. Then, again, why was not the tonnage diminished under the increased tolls the past year? The fact that there was no decrease is said to be evidence of good management, and to show that high rates will not drive business from the canals. We certainly think these conclusions are unwarranted. The canals may be managed well and the tolls *may* not at present be too high, but we see no proof of these facts in last year's business. There was no other outlet during 1862 for the wealth of the West except our railroads, which were also taxed to their utmost capacity. This freight was forced, therefore, to come by the canals, and would have done so even had the tolls been higher. Only let the usual avenues of trade be opened, let the blockade of the Mississippi be raised, and then we can tell how high tolls our canals will bear.

We give the following table for the purpose of showing how much the revenue was increased the past year, compared with 1859 and 1860, by the increased tolls. The first column shows the tons of each class of property first cleared and carried on the canals from the opening to the close of navigation in 1862. The second column exhibits the tolls paid on boats and passengers and on each class of property carried, on the rates of toll imposed by the Canal Board in the winter of 1862, which continued uniform through the season of navigation. The third, what tolls would have been on the same tonnage of each class under the rates charged in toll sheet of 1857; and the fourth shows what the toll receipts would have been under the rates imposed in 1860:

Class of property.	Tons transported in 1862.	Tolls received in 1862 on rates of that year.	Tolls on same tonnage on the rates of 1859.	Tolls on same tonnage on the rates of 1860.
Boats and passengers, 1862..	.....	$261,283	$261,283	$261,283
The Forest—				
Furs and peltry.....	109	70	263	263
Product of wood.....	1,569,674	699,433	577,293	590,594
Agricultural—				
Product of animals	68,269	65,466	49,238	65,466
Vegetable food.....	2,422,598	3,637,118	2,607,733	2,668,521
All other agricultr'l products.	3,169	2,208	2,208	2,208

	Tons carried 1862.	Tolls rec'd 1862.	Tolls 1859.	Tolls 1860.
Manufactures	364,877	161,556	202,123	207,829
Merchandise	167,727	117,444	101,568	199,193
Other articles	1,002,271	244,435	181,739	240,764
Aggregate	5,598,785	$5,188,943	$3,063,185	$3,235,858
Deduct tolls on boats & pass.	.....	261,283	261,283	261,283
Tolls on property	.....	$4,927,660	$3,721,902	$3,974,565

The increase in 1862 over 1859 on the same amount of tonnage is $1,205,758, and over 1860, $953,085.

We have prepared the following tables which will be found of interest, showing, as they do, the tolls and tonnage for the past three years:

CANAL TOLLS FOR THREE YEARS.

Description of articles.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Boats and passengers....tolls	$199,479	$207,924	$261,283
Furs and peltry	113	81	.....
Products of wood	657,511	398,566	699,433
Product of animals	13,039	14,132	65,466
Vegetable food	1,574,390	2,856 846	3,637,118
All other agricultural products	1,348	1,220	2,208
Manufactures	87,956	95,722	161,556
Merchandise	223,885	107 958	177,444
Other articles	251,876	226,336	244,435
Total	$3,009,597	$3,908,785	$5,188,943

CANAL TONNAGE FOR THREE YEARS.

Description of articles.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Furs and peltry.....tons	222	155	.....
Products of wood	1,509,755	1,052.237	1,569,674
Product of animals	19.882	19 282	63,269
Vegetable food	1,659,158	2,122,237	2,422,593
All other agricultural products	3,714	2,854	3 169
Manufactures	268,759	28),256	364,877
Merchandise	250,360	135,096	167,927
Other articles	938,364	895,518	1,002,271
Total	4,6 0,214	4,507,635	5,598,785

The value of tonnage for 1862 is as follows:

Products of the forest		$11,305,054
Products of animals	$11,117,228	
Vegetable food	71,971,741	
Other agricultural products	1,150,401	
		84,239,370
Manufactures		12,314 651
Merchandise		83,640,203
Other articles		11,733,453
		$203,234,331

The total of freight or number of tons carried one mile during the last season of navigation was..... 1,123,547,430

The total movement of the several classes composing such tonnage is as follows:

Products of the forest		228,815,916
Products of animals	16,910,583	
Vegetable food	653,245,382	
Other agricultural products	615,000	
		670,770,965
Manufactures		49,329,099
Merchandise		49,798,250
Other articles		124,834,200
		1,123,548,430

The whole amount of tonnage arrived at tide-water by way of the Erie Canal, from Western States and Canada, during the last season of navigation, was 2,594,837 tons. The whole amount of tonnage arrived at tide-water, the product of this State, during the same period was 322,257 tons.

The whole number of barrels of flour arriving at tide-water, through the canals, during the last season of navigation, was	1,826,509
The whole number of bushels of wheat arriving during the same period, was 32,667,866, which turned into flour, calculating five bushels to the barrel, would make	6,533,573
Total in barrels	8,360,082

The whole number of bushels of corn arriving at tide-water, during the same period, was 23,709,822.

Comparing the season of 1861 with that of 1862, it shows an increase in revenue of $1,280,158, and an increase in tonnage of 1,091,150, divided among the different classes as follows:

Products of the forest, increase		517,282
Products of animals, increase	48,987	
Vegetable food, increase	300,361	
Other agricultural products, increase	315	
		349,663
Manufactures, increase		84,621
Merchandise, "		32,831
Other articles, "		106,753
		1,091,150

In flour and wheat, comprised in the returns of vegetable food, there has been an increase in tonnage the past year of 179,239, and an increase in the tolls of $611,465. In corn and oats there has been an increase during the same period of 68,746 tons, and an increase in tolls of $126,308. Under the head of "Products of the Forest," there was an increase in tonnage upon shingles, boards, and scantling, of 150,750, and an increase in tonnage upon timber, staves, and wood of 265,358, and an increase in pot and pearl ashes of 1,220. Under the head of "other articles," there was an increase in the tonnage of mineral coal, for the same period, of 94,570, and a decrease in sundries of 119,556 tons.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT AS TO ESTIMATING THE ALLOWANCE FOR TARE.

THE following circular, relating to tare, has been issued by the Hon. S. P. CHASE, Secretary of the Treasury, to collectors of customs:

Treasury Department, January 24, 1863.

SIR: The 16th section of the Tariff act of the 14th July, 1862, provides: "That, from and after the passage of this act, in estimating the allowance for tare on all chests, boxes, cases, casks, bags, or other envelop or covering of all articles imported liable to pay any duty, where the original invoice is produced at the time of making entry thereof, and the tare shall be specified therein, it shall be lawful for the collector, if he shall see fit, or for the collector and naval officer, if such officer there be, if they shall see fit, with the consent of the consignees, to estimate the said tare according to such invoice; but in all other cases the real tare shall be allowed, and may be ascertained under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may from time to time prescribe, but in no case shall there be any allowance for draft."

The execution of the foregoing provision will be governed by the following regulations: In all cases where the original invoice is produced at the time of making the entry thereof, with the tare specified therein, the collector, or collector and naval officer, if such officer there be, may, in his or their discretion, and with the consent of the consignees, estimate the tare according to the invoice; otherwise the real tare is to be allowed.

The following schedule of tares is the tare to be allowed in all cases where the invoice tare is not adopted as hereinbefore prescribed: *Provided*, That the collector shall have the right at any time to test the tare on any importation where, in his opinion, the real tare may vary from the tare in the schedule annexed.

Should any consignee or importer enter a protest in due form of law against the enforcement of any one or more of the tares as herein set forth, the collector will in all such cases adopt the real tare, to be ascertained in the usual manner.

SCHEDULE OF TARES PRESCRIBED FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COLLECTORS OF CUSTOMS AND OTHERS INTERESTED.

Almonds.....	2½ per cent, bales; 2 per cent, bags; 8 per cent, frails.
Alum	10 per cent, casks.
Barytes.....	3 per cent.
Cheese	10 per cent for casks or tubs.
Cassia.....	9 per cent for mats.
Coffee, Rio.....	1 per cent, single bags; 2 per cent, double bags. All other coffee, actual tare.
Cinnamon.....	6 per cent, bales.
Cocoa.....	2 per cent, bags; 8 per cent, cero ons.
Chickory.....	2 per cent, bags.

Copperas.....	10 per cent, casks.
Currants.....	10 per cent, casks.
Hemps	Manilla, 4 pounds to each bale: Hamburg, Leghorn, Trieste, 5 pounds to each bale.
Indigo.....	10 per cent for ceroons.
Melado.....	11 per cent.
Nails.....	2 per cent, bags; 8 per cent, casks.
Ochre.....	Dry, in casks, 8 per cent; oil, in casks, 12 per cent.
Peruvian Bark....	10 per cent, ceroons.
Paris White.....	10 per cent, casks.
Pepper	2 per cent, bags; 4 per cent, double bags.
Pimento	2 per cent, bags.
Raisins	25 per cent, boxes; 27 per cent, ½ boxes; 29 per cent, ¼ boxes; 4 per cent, frails; 12 per cent, casks.
Rice	2 per cent, bags.
Spanish Brown...	In casks, dry, 10 per cent; casks, in oil, 12 per cent.
Sugar	12½ per cent, hogsheads; 12 per cent, tierces; 10 per cent, barrels; 14 per cent, boxes; 2 per cents, bags; 2½ per cent, mats.
Salt.....	Fine, in sacks, 3 pounds for each sack; coarse, or ground alum, 2 pounds each.
Teas.....	Duty to be levied on the net number of pounds, as per invoice, when from China or Japan. All others, actual tare by weight.
Tobacco	Leaf, in bales, tare 10 pounds each bale. Bales with extra covers, 12 pounds each.
Whiting.....	10 per cent, in casks.

Respectfully,

S. P. Chase, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

DECISIONS OF TREASURY DEPARTMENT UNDER THE TARIFF ACTS.

The following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury, of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors, relating to the proper classification, under the Tariff acts of March 2, 1861, August 5, 1861, and July 14, 1862, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production entered at the ports of Boston and New York.

RAGS.

Treasury Department, December 16, 1862.

Sir: I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Mr. L. Heiffer from your decision subjecting to duty, under the Tariff act of August 5, 1861, certain rags imported in the ship Ocean Romp, which arrived on the 21st of July last.

The appellants claim the right to enter said rags free of duty under the provisions of the act of July 14, 1862, inasmuch as they were "on shipboard on the 1st day of August, 18 2."

Under the act of August 5, 1861, "rags, of whatever material," were made subject to duty at the rate of 10 per centum ad valorem. The act of July 14, 1862, provides "that all imported cotton and linen rags for the manufacture of paper shall be free; it also says that all goods "on

shipboard on the first day of August, 1862, shall be subject to the duties prescribed by this act."

In this case it appears that sufficient time elapsed to have enabled the importer to make his entry and obtain a permit for the landing of his merchandise, but he failed to do so, and apparently waited of purpose until the new act went into effect before making his entry.

Your decision is affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, etc., Boston.*

PATENT LEATHER.

Treasury Department, February 7, 1863.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of FRED. M. MAAS & Co. from your decision assessing a duty at the rate of 30 per cent on certain "Patent Leather," imported by them.

The appellants claim that the leather in question is liable to 20 per cent duty, "because an upper leather."

Section 22 of the act of March 2, 1861, imposes a duty of 30 per cent on "japanned, *patent* or enameled leather, or skins of all kinds." Under this section you have classed the importation by F. M. MAAS & Co., and assessed the duty accordingly.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, etc., New York.*

RAW SILK.

Treasury Department, February 7, 1863.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of Messrs. HADDEN & Co. from your decision assessing a duty of 10 per cent, under section 14 of the Tariff act of July 14, 1862, on certain raw silk imported by them from Liverpool, on August 28th and September 11th, 17th, and 23d.

The appellants say, "The ground upon which we claim exemption from duty in respect to these several importations is that, being unmanufactured and in a raw state, they are expressly made *free* by all the existing acts of Congress on the subject of duties. In the tariff or rates of duties, silk raw, or as reeled from the cocoon, not being doubled, twisted, or advanced in manufacture in any way, and silk cocoons and waste silk, are declared free. This is the tariff under the law of 1862, as well as under prior laws."

Section 14 of the Tariff act of July 14, 1862, is unmistakably plain and emphatic in its language. It levies a duty of 10 per cent on ***all*** goods, wares, and merchandise of the growth or produce of countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, when imported from places this side of the Cape of Good Hope.

The appellants admit that the raw silk in question is the production of China and Persia, and that it was imported by them from Liverpool. This virtually decides the question, and your decision is hereby approved.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, etc., New York.*

JOURNAL OF MINING, MANUFACTURES, AND ART.

GOLD MINING IN NEW ZEALAND.

We find in the Edinburgh *Witness* an article in regard to the discoveries of several gold-fields of an extraordinary character in Otago, New Zealand. The *Witness* says the greatest excitement prevails there. The Otago journals can scarce find terms extravagant enough to describe the richness of the auriferous districts; and their statements must be received with some qualification. But, even making all allowance for this, it appears that the quantity of precious metal which has been obtained by diggers is remarkable. Those interested in the progress of New Zealand may remember that, in August last, two miners of the names of Hartley and Reilly arrived in Dunedin, the capital of Otago, with 87 pounds of gold, which they had obtained in the interior of the country. They purposely avoided all mention of the place where they had found this treasure, and it was only when the government promised them a reward of £2,000, on condition that the district produced 16,000 ounces within three month, that they divulged their secret. No sooner was it made known that this rich field was in the district watered by the Molyneux river, in the northern part of Otago, than a rush took place, Dunedin being almost deserted. In spite of warnings, "Thousands (says the Otago *Times* of the 16th December,) started on a journey of a hundred miles, into an almost uninhabited country, with scarcely any provisions for their necessities, without food, and even without tools, only eager to arrive early and secure claims. Soon a rush came from Australia; and as had been predicted, there was much suffering at first from want of necessaries, and great numbers returned disappointed, without even reaching the ground. Soon, however, a more healthy state of things supervened, and as many got first-rate prospects on the river, and provisions began to arrive, the panic was stayed. But there came another cause of alarm. The river, as warm weather came on, began to rise; and it was quickly evident that, however rich the river bars might be, it would be hopeless to expect to work them until another season. Gloomy anticipations began to be entertained; but the people on the spot, finding that they could not work the river, very sensibly turned their attention to the banks, and almost at once began to find gold. They found that gold was to be obtained by driving into the steep banks, and by sinking in the terrace-like flats; and they also discovered that the small rivers and creeks contained rich deposits. Large parcels of gold reached town by the hands of private buyers—one person bringing down 125 pounds, and other parcels of 10 or 20 pounds, and confidence was restored. On the 6th of October the first escort from the new field arrived in town, bringing 6,031 ounces of gold; on the 18th, another escort of 6,240 ounces came to hand; on the 31st October, 9,053 ounces; and on the 15th November, 9,569 ounces, thus making upwards of 30,000 ounces within the stipulated three months, instead of 16,000, and securing the reward to the prospectors."

The new gold field, when first proclaimed under the title of the Dun-

stan Gold Field, after one of the adjoining mountains, was fixed for a distance of twenty-five miles along the river's course; but the diggings soon extended, the region being of such an auriferous character, until they embraced an extent of territory of at least fifty miles in one direction, and thirty in another. Still further discoveries were made. A correspondent, in writing of these gold fields, says:

"One is at the Cardrona river, a tributary of the Molyneux, distant from the Dunstan river camp some seventy miles. About one thousand men are there assembled. The valley at the Cardrona is twenty-six miles long, the whole of which is auriferous. From the Cardrona, Mr. HECTOR (an officer of the government,) proceeded to the Arrow river, on the other side of a mountain, dividing one gully from another. 'Here were diggers, each making 3 ounces of gold a day; but this,' adds Mr. HECTOR, 'must fall far short of what some of the first arrivals obtained.' One party of four took out 243 ounces in the first fortnight; nuggets of an ounce and of 15 and 17 dwt. being common. Prospectors found payable gold for upwards of twenty miles. From another part called Conroy's Gully, much more abundant yields seem to have been obtained. 'To give returns,' writes the special reporter of the *Times*, 'of all the rich finds is impossible. Pounds weight per day are freely spoken about and cause no surprise; and people here will believe almost anything that is reported. The mention of ounces is treated quite cavalierly, such is the excitement prevailing.' * * * 'Very few are content to settle down upon anything that is not extraordinary. WILLIAMS and party cleared up some 400 ounces; they washed as high as a pound weight per dish. It was in this rush that the 50lb. weight was got by two men. It is useless to mention other instances of success, as the list would extend to large dimensions. The gold is coarse, heavy, and water worn, and many pieces weighing over an ounce had been obtained. CORCORAN and party informed the sergeant stationed here that they were making six pounds weight a day.'"

Another correspondent gives an account of a party of two men at Arrow river washing out 4lbs. weight with one tin dish in seven days; of a party in the same locality washing 50 ounces a day with a cradle; of another party in a locality as yet undisclosed, washing out sixty ounces in one day, with no appliance except an old blanket, none of the pieces of gold being of less size than small horse beans; of four men at Potter's getting 180 ounces for a few days' work, and of other cases of less conspicuous good fortune almost without number. These fortunes have not, however, been made without incurring great hardships from the scarcity of provisions and the severity of the weather, and many who were unfitted for the work, or whose means would not enable them to hold on for a sufficient time, have been compelled to retrace their steps, bitterly bemoaning their fate. In addition to these new fields, those discovered some months ago continue to yield good returns; and it is stated that the total quantity of gold brought down to Dunedin by escort since the opening of the gold fields, up to the 16th December, (16 months,) is 526,772 ounces. Otago has, since the discovery of these auriferous regions, made such great progress that her population exceeds that of the other provinces, while her imports and exports are also greater. These fresh discoveries will draw many to her shores, and develop her resources. Gold has

also been discovered at Coromandel, in the northern island, but machinery is here required to crush and amalgamate the quartz. The mail now arrived also informs us that new gold fields have been discovered about seventy miles from Melbourne, so that Victoria will still be able to preserve her place as one of the most auriferous regions.

Another correspondent, writing from Australia, says:

"At no time before were the reports from New Zealand about the gold mines so favorable as by the latest accounts. Fortunes are being made with almost fabulous rapidity, and the rush thither is unprecedented. According to one local journal, the province of Otago was increasing its population by thousands every week. Otago occupies the southern part of the larger island (New Munster,) and is situated nearly under the 45th parallel of south latitude. The port of Dunedin was overflowing with passengers from Australia. Within one week four ships had arrived at Fort Chalmers, bringing thirty-two hundred passengers. At the Dunstan "diggings" three thousand one hundred and thirty-three ounces of gold were left with the police for transmission, within five days. Yields of three or four ounces of yellow dust per day per laborer were thought of little account, and several were reported to be taking it out by the pound. Among the articles reported as scarce are bank notes, wherewith to purchase precious metal. All kinds of produce had advanced to extravagant prices, and rowdyism was becoming disgustingly prevalent in a community which was founded under religious influence and named after the great Scottish divine by his countrymen.

"The whole population of New Zealand, as ascertained by a census before the gold excitement broke out, was 100,000, of which about fifty per cent was natives. But with this discovery it is probable that the foreign element has already doubled, and will continue to advance at an unusually rapid rate for years to come. The climate and soil are for the most part among the best on the globe, and the situation of the islands is well adapted to European constitutions. One of these days another nation will be born there."

Since the foregoing was written we have received later news from New Zealand, *via* Panama. These accounts are still more glowing than the others. New discoveries are reported, throwing into shade those made in Otago; and the New Zealand mines are believed to excel in richness those of California or Australia. There present weekly product is estimated at 20,000 ounces. Prices of all kinds are at monstrous figures; and railroads, telegraphs, steamboat lines, gas works, etc., are among the grand projects of the day.

THE OIL WELLS OF CANADA.

The Toronto *Leader* says: "At the present time the prospects of the petroleum trade of Canada are clouded. Out of about thirty wells, all but two have ceased to flow. When these wells first begun to give out, the question was raised whether it would not still be possible to obtain oil from them by pumping. Experience shows, however, that when the flow of oil ceases, little else than salt water is left behind. Whether this water be strong enough for profitable manufacture into salt is a question on which opinion is unsettled, and which experiment may some day decide. Though the spouting wells have never formed the only source of

supply, by far the greatest part of the oil has been obtained from them. The effect of their cessation may be pretty accurately expressed in figures. The production has fallen from 12,000 bbls. to something like 400 bbls. a day. But it does not, by any means, necessarily follow that this low figure is not capable of great future augmentation. Up to this time, the greater part of the oil, which is estimated altogether at 800,000 bbls., has been taken from an area of about two square miles. When we take into account that the anticlinal in which the oil is found traverses the entire peninsula of Upper Canada, between almost the most distant points that could be selected, it would be rash to conclude that this vast subterranean reservoir is not capable of being made to yield up an enormous amount of hitherto hidden treasure.

The spouting wells were sure to become exhausted, and what has now happened in regard to them must have been foreseen by all who took the trouble to understand their nature. Other spouting wells may be found, but it is evident that if any of the wells are to give a permanent supply, it will be those from which the oil is pumped. Hitherto there has been a monstrous waste of oil, arising chiefly from not having the spouting wells, when oil was first struck, properly under control. According to some estimates, about one-half the entire quantity of oil brought to the surface has been lost in this way. It is a matter of speculation whether another flow of oil may not be got below the bed of the exhausted wells, and we learn that this point is to be settled by sinking a trial well to the depth of 1,000 feet. In Pennsylvania success was obtained under like circumstances, and the precedent gives hope of a like result in this case.

POSTAGE ON BOOTS, ETC.

POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT, APPOINTMENT OFFICE,
Washington, January 3d.

Many postmasters persist in sending through the mails packages of clothing, boots, etc., charging thereon only one cent an ounce for postage. This is a palpable violation of the law and regulations with which every postmaster should be familiar. The packages are held for the legal postage at the distributing offices, or office of delivery, accumulating to such an extent as to be greatly annoying to these officers, and, in a large majority of cases, never reach the parties addressed, thus causing a loss to the parties sending.

The law and regulations clearly define what is mailable matter, and prescribe what amount of postage is to be charged thereon, and further provides that all other matter or thing, if sent by mail, is subject to letter postage.

To prevent further loss to parties interested, and the improper interruption of business at the large offices, all postmasters are required to make themselves fully acquainted with the laws and regulations relating to the postal service; and the mailing of packages hereafter, of the character referred to, by any postmaster, without the proper postage being prepaid by postage stamps, will be considered good cause for removal.

(Signed.) ALEX. W. RANDALL, *1st Asst. Postmaster-General.*

THE BOOK TRADE.

Verner's Pride. By Mrs. HENRY WOOD, author of the "Earl's Heirs," "Life's Secret," "The Channings," etc. Philadelphia: T. B. PETERSON & BROTHERS. In two volumes. Price 50 cents each.

We have Mr. LONGFELLOW's authority for declaring that it is a sublime thing to suffer and be strong, but we can only give our own for the assertion that we have been achieving sublimity this long time. Concealment has been preying upon the editorial cheek until we are threatened with a moral lockjaw, and our constitution can no longer support such depredations. We seek relief by candor. There is a defect in Mrs. WOOD's style which is exasperating beyond expression; we should long ago have spoken of it, but for the fact that it was commented on by several of our contemporaries, and we considered that sufficient. To speak of it, is to remedy it, we said to ourselves, and in silence awaited amendment; but the next book showed no improvement, nor the next, and in this last work, the error glares upon one from every page with a persistency that is unendurable. Like, is a good Saxon word, quite unobjectionable in its proper place, but it becomes woefully unpleasant when abnormally situated, and in Verner's Pride it crops out in every direction, in the most monstrous and preposterous connection.

If it is an established law in Ethics that a man should pay his debts before he makes presents, or that a philanthropist should relieve his suffering neighbor before sending swaddling-bands to Bush-babies, it is even more imperative upon an author to be thoroughly master of the sober beast Syntax, before he mounts unbridled Pegasus for a flight. The most talented, the most imaginative, the most prolific writer in the world, will only mutilate or squander his best gifts, without a patient and special reference to such prosaic things as spelling and grammar. We doubt whether SHAKSPEARE's most devoted admirers would be quite as enthusiastic if he had represented the courtly Polonius as exclaiming, "To thine own self be true, and it must follow *like* the night the day," etc., or if he had made wrathful Mark Antony ejaculate, "I am no orator *like* Brutus is, but *like* you know me all, a plain, blunt man." To go beyond SHAKSPEARE, and mar the pure simplicity of the Scriptures by such abuses, only gives a still stronger contrast. The very children would cry out against such enormities as "*Like* thy days are so shall thy strength be," or "*Like* ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them likewise." If SHAKSPEARE and the Sacred Word can suffer from such substitution, its effect upon ordinary writing must be doubly disastrous.

It becomes the more disagreeable the longer it is persisted in, and develops from a heedless inaccuracy into a wilful delinquency. It is a pity that a matter so easily remedied should be allowed to spoil so good a book as Verner's Pride. If not equal to the "Channings," which we consider an admirable novel, and by far the best thing ever published by Mrs. WOOD, it is at least superior to her other works; the plot is continued with great ingenuity and is very interesting; Jan is a splendid character, and Master Cheese very amusing in his fat way. The hero, we love for his many noble qualities, notwithstanding two drawbacks to our enthusiasm. The first is, that he is undeniably a little tender about the brain, and the second, that his extreme delicacy is spotless, and rather of a remittent type. He allows his love for the heroine (who is an uncommonly nice girl) to appear while his first wife is living, but after she is dead, and the way is open, pangs of honor seize him and he resolves to conceal

his affection, because his circumstances are depressed. This obstacle being removed, by his coming into a fortune, the reader expects an immediate proposal, a wedding and the end. But the hero is then attacked by the violent conviction that it is his duty to ask the consent of the young lady's father first, and as he is in India, there is necessarily a considerable delay. Meantime the heroine has a good time growing thin and ruining her best pocket handkerchiefs with frequent secret tears, as far as the last chapter, when everything is made suddenly right. The whole Pickaby affair is a capital story by itself, full of the purest fun and entertainment, and is quite equal to some of DICKENS's best humorous sketches.

The New American Cyclopædia; a Popular Dictionary of General Knowledge. Edited by GEORGE RIPLEY and CHARLES A. DANA. Volumes Sixteen. New York: D. APPLETON & Co., 443 and 445 Broadway.

This is the last volume of this admirable work. The first was issued, as our readers probably remember, in 1858, and, as during these five years it has been going through the press, all have had an excellent opportunity to form a correct judgment of its merits or demerits. To us, however, it is but just to say, it has become an invaluable resource, in the prosecution of our every day duties. One can find within its pages an inexaustible fund of accurate and practical information on almost all questions and subjects of art, science, biography, history, law, medicine, political economy, etc. In connection with the publication of this great work, we have learned some interesting statistics that may be interesting to the reader. Its publishers, we understand, have invested $415,000 in this literary venture. The amount paid to contributors, and for making the stereotype plates, up to December last, was $148,700. The other expenses on 217,550 copies of the first fifteen volumes printed, were, for paper $111,500, printing $17,500, binding $110,000, advertising, circulars, etc., $20,000. Add to this the cost of paper, printing, and binding 10,000 copies of vol. xvi, $10,500, and an item denominated sundries, $1,800, and we have a grand total of $415,000. The number of titles or subjects treated is said to be about 27,000. The sixteen volumes contain 13,804 pages, which have 52,000,000 ems, printer's measure. To print the edition called for of the first fifteen volumes required 12,094 reams of white paper; and to print 10,000 copies of the sixteenth volume consumes 556 reams more. The work has been circulated entirely by subscription, and it had obtained at a recent period not less than 17,000 subscribers. Of this number 12,000, we are informed, live in the free, and 5,000 in the slave States; of the latter, Louisiana contributed the greatest number.

A staff of twenty-five regular writers was engaged, most of whom had desks in a large office furnished with a very extensive library of books of reference in various languages. The editorial labors of revising the articles as written, and again revising the proof-sheets, employed not only the two editors, but five or six other gentlemen, especially competent for this work, who verified dates and other figures, and, so far as is possible to human handiwork, made each page perfect.

We think that the Messrs. APPLETON deserve great credit for the excellent manner in which they have supervised this work, and are glad to know that it has proved to them, what it really is, a success.

Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia for 1862.

D. APPLETON & Co. have rapidly passing through the press the second volume of the new annual publication, which was received with such favor by all classes of the community. Its contents embrace the material and intellectual progress of the year, particularly in this country; the important civil and political measures of the Federal

and State governments; an accurate and minute history of the struggles of the great armies and the many battles, illustrated with maps of the country and plans of the actions, taken from official copies; the proceedings in the Confederate States to maintain the war and establish their government; the debates of the Federal and Confederate Congresses; the financial measures of the government, the commerce, etc; also, the progress of foreign nations, including the Mexican Expedition; the ignominious flight of Otho from Greece; the Tae-ping Rebellion in China; the cautious march of the Russians into Persia, their intrigues in Afghanistan, and their march to the Chinese frontier; the Cochin China war; the distress of the Lancashire operatives; the stoppage of the looms of Mulhouse and Lyons; also, the developments in the physical sciences; the progress of literature, mechanical inventions, and improvements; the religious statistics of the world, and biographical sketches of the eminent persons deceased in 1862.

As an evidence of the high estimation in which the volume for 1861 is held in England, we append the following notice from the London *Daily News:*

"This valuable work contains, as nearly as may be, materials for the complete history of America for the year. It embraces the political, civil, military, and social affairs of the Western Continent for that period. It preserves all the public documents for the future historian, records the biography of men who have played a distinguished part in the great events that have occurred during the year, and gives full statistics of the condition of the nation, with the state of its commerce, finance, literature, science, agriculture, and mechanical industry. The work is a decided improvement upon our 'Annual Register.' It comprehends a much wider circle; indeed, it excludes scarcely anything connected with the national life. It gives the authorities and original pieces upon which its statements are founded; and the alphabetical arrangement, though it breaks up the historical connection of the contents, renders them very easy of reference. We cannot imagine a more useful book for immediate use to any one interested in what is taking place in the United States. Were our members of Parliament, who take an annual opportunity of displaying their ignorance before their constituents, docile enough to consult the pages of this authentic work, they would not be so frequently exposed to the reproach of delivering opinions formed upon the most distorted views of American affairs. Nor will the value of the work cease with the immediate interest it is calculated to excite. Every succeeding year will add to it. As the colors with which imagination, prejudice, and passions surround the solemn events now occurring amongst our Transatlantic kinsmen fade with time, so will the truthful records of these annual volumes become more distinct and more precious to the historical inquirer. Should the work be continued, as it deserves to be, during a long series of years, America will have to boast, among other things, of possessing the fullest and best arranged repertory of history in the world."

Appletons Railway Guide.

The Messrs. APPLETON have just issued their Railway Guide for April. They continue to keep it up to the high standard it has always held, making it invaluable to the traveler. We notice also that they now publish a smaller volume (Railroad Guide) for ten cents, which contains much information, and will, we think, become quite popular among those who propose taking short journeys, and do not wish therefore to purchase the larger book.

Somebody's Luggage. By CHARLES DICKENS. Philadelphia: T. B. PETERSON & BROTHERS. Price 25 cents.

Mr. DICKENS's books are sure to be read whatever their merits may be, for his worst writings are better than some people's best. The present volume contains certainly several very trashy stories, and yet, after the DICKENS-fashion of late days, we find among the rubbish a few gems of sufficient value to redeem the whole. The narrative of Mary Carwcour is passably good, but the last tale in the book, the account of Dick Blorage and his Chair of Truth, is altogether charming, and is of itself worth all the rest of the Luggage.

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AND

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MAY, 1863.

NATIONAL ACCUMULATION AND NATIONAL INCOME.

It is quite a remarkable fact that during the nearly two hundred years before the beginning of the nineteenth century, the population of the present United States had barely reached 4,000,000 of souls, who were far from rich, and in the latter part of that period had become bankrupt by a war of independence by no means of itself costly. With the opening of the present century, however, the population and wealth of the country began to increase in a marvelous ratio, until the lapse of sixty years finds the former equal to that of the British Islands, and the latter equal to the most favored nations. The facts are startling, and the causes by no means clearly understood. The leading figures are as follows:

	Population.	*No. houses.*	*Value of houses.*	*Value land.*	*Manufactures. annual value.*	*Exports ten years.*
1798...	3,929,827	276,659	$140,688,984	$479,249,636	$62,766,885	$293,634,645
1850...	23,105,655	3,262,337	2,520,967,400	4,629,031,708	1,055,595,899	1,131,458,801
1860...	31,676,267	4,833,780	3,466,984,000	9,317,692,261	1,981,211,201	2,766,799,881

We thus see that during the ten years previous to the close of the eighteenth century, the population, which was less than 4,000,000, had exported annually $29,800,000, or about $7 per head, and were manufacturing annually goods to the value of about $15 per head. Fifty years later the population had reached 23,000,000, and their exports were $5 per head per annum, and manufactures $50 per head per annum. In the next ten years the exports rose to $9, and the manufactures to $64 per head. The manufactures at the begining of the century were mostly the rude productions of families, or home spun goods, whereas, at the latter date the productions were chiefly by means of machines, at low

prices; in other words, a much larger quantity of greatly better goods is expressed in the same sum of money at the latter period than at the former. The value also of land and houses during the sixty years increased from $155 to $400 per head. This great improvement in the value of landed property, (being in sixty years two hundred per cent more than in the previous one hundred and eighty years,) by no means equals the vast increase in other descriptions of property which was also accumulated by the people during the same period. These are manifest in the following table:

	1790.	1840.	1860.
United States stocks.....	$67,000,000	$25,000,000	$55,155,977
State stocks.....	.....	174,906,997	210,487,000
113 city and towns stocks ...	.....	13,107,000	85,382,201
350 counties stocks.....	.....	1,500,000	15,927,292
Savings deposits	.....	20,500,000	220,000,000
Life insurance premiums.....	.....	.....	60,101,000
Bank stocks.....	3,000,000	290,772,091	421,880,095
Insurance stocks	500,000	40,101,000	70,500,000
Four hundred railroad stocks.	.....	45,102,208	506,746,898
Four hundred railroad bonds .	.....	40,897,792	411,199,702
Sixteen canal stocks.....	.....	31,219,911	35,888,918
Sixteen canal bonds	.....	19,207,101	22,130,569
45 mining and other co. stocks	.....	10,101,201	44,208,006
45 mining and other co. bonds	.....	1,000,000	3,971,204
381 gas companies.....	.....	21,121,000	47,911,215
Total	$70,500,000	$734,536,301	2,211,290,077

All these investments represent the combination or co-operation of individual capital to promote certain objects which were beyond the power of individual enterprise, but which are indispensable to the development of industry. In the case of the savings banks they are simply the accumulation of earnings that might otherwise have been expended or consumed. The same remark applies to the premiums on life policies, which to the extent of $60,000,000 were paid to life companies. The investments in the stock of insurance companies provide guarantees for the safety of individual property, while the assets of mutual companies are simply the accumulated savings of the premiums. In the case of railroads and lands, the capital has been applied to facilitating the transportation of goods, the interchange of which is promoted by the use of bank capital. The vast sum, therefore, of $2,211,290,077, has been earned and saved by the people in sixty years, and, being invested in the manner stated, has no doubt tended powerfully to promote further accumulation, which has progressed in an accelerated ratio, as may be seen in the fact that two-thirds of the whole amount has been gathered in the last twenty years. Those enumerated investments do not include mortgages, which are estimated at $300,000,000; but it is probable that one-half of the amount of these mortgages was applied to the construction of houses and improvement of property, of which the cost has been given. There is also an immense accumulation of capital in stocks of goods of all possible descriptions on the shelves of storekeepers, and of machinery for various manufacturing purposes. The aggregate of all these may be approxima-

ted by the sum of the risks taken by the fire insurance companies. Thus, in 1860, 228 companies reported $1,977,280,404 risks outstanding. This cannot be held to cover less than $2,500,000,000 of property, of which, however, a considerable portion is no doubt on buildings, but at least one-half the amount may be taken as goods, etc. The property of the country will then be approximated as follows:

THE WEALTH OF UNITED STATES IN 1860.

Lands and houses.....	$12,784,676,261
Stock investments.....	2,301,189,077
Goods insured.....	1,250,000,000
Shipping, 5,049,808 tons.....	252,491,000
Total.....	$16,588,356,438

This gives an aggregate of $16,588,356,438, or an accumulation of very nearly $16,000,000,000 in sixty years, or $266,000,000 per annum. It is not probable that the increased value of the land can be considered altogether as accumulation, since its value has risen in the hands of the possessors, without, in some instances, any volition of theirs. No doubt in many cases the advanced values have been paid by purchasers out of their savings, and in very many cases also, immigrants, who have arrived in the country to the number of 3,500,000, and have brought with them capital estimated at $500,000,000, have, to some extent, purchased land with the money they have thus brought. It is evident, however, from all these considerations, that by some extraordinary agency the power of production and accumulation has received an immense impulse in the present century, beyond what was ever the case in the previous history of the world, and wealth has poured in upon the people in an unprecedented degree.

If we would seek the leading causes of this rapid accumulation, they will, we think, be found to be, 1st, the co-operative power of capital, which has in this country been carried to a far greater extent than in any other. All the savings of almost all classes, instead of being buried in metallic hoards, have been combined and applied to enterprises which have given value to labor by making it more available; 2d, the invention of steam transportation, which has virtually multiplied capital by causing its more rapid conversion; 3d, the numberless inventions which have so multiplied the products of industry; 4th, the abundance of cheap and very fertile land open to all comers.

Cheap land has no doubt been the basis of the high wages which have ruled in this country from its first settlement. When an individual could procure for nothing land which gave a large return for his labor, artizans wages must necessarily have been correspondingly high. Nevertheless, the fact that but little accumulation took place until the present century indicates that, even on cheap land under the old system of agricultural labor, although supplied with the plow, the harrow, and other simple labor-saving machines, the whole industry of an ordinary family barely sufficed to meet its immediate wants. The small surplus that might be accumulated was due to fair seasons or favorable soil. Hence the demand for other commodities was limited and their production laborious and costly. Suddenly, however, steam lent its gigantic power as a laborer; and a multi-

tude of machines entered into every branch of industry, multiplying almost indefinitely the surplus of all commodities that might be produced, and of course increasing in a similar ratio the exchangeable capital of the country. The use of labor saving machines in agricultural operations at the West, enables the unaided family of a farmer to work a large tract of land, and harvest the produce far in advance of his family wants, whereas formerly, with the greatest industry he would have little to spare. This circumstance, connected with the construction of railroads, making the Western lands accessible to market, has produced marvelous results. Take, for instance, Chicago and Milwaukee. At those points concentrates a network of railroads which lays open the rich lands between the lakes and the Mississippi. The population of Illinois and Wisconsin was 1,156,861 in 1850, and 2,487,832 in 1860; at the former date there were in operation 130 miles of railroad, at the latter date 3,791 miles, involving an expenditure in ten years of $120,000,000. The receipts of grain at Chicago and Milwaukee in the same period increased as follows:

	Chicago.*	Milwaukee.		Chicago.	Milwaukee.
1852...	5,873,141	1,723,153	1858...	23,422,708	6,088,653
1853...	6,412,181	2,000,269	1859...	20,008,223	6,647,737
1854...	12,478,498	3,339,301	1860...	30,504,772	9,995,000
1855...	16,011,207	1,258,960	1861...	55,646,287	16,787,725
1856...	21,107,201	3,894,254	1860...	60,150,390	18,175,364
1857...	21,856,206	3,703,521			
Total bushel.....				279,470,814	73,613,937

In 1840 the shipments had been 10,000 bushels. The value of this 299,470,814 bushels grain shipped in eleven years from Chicago was, in round numbers, $200,000,000; the 73,613'937 bushels from Milwaukee was $50,000,000; and this may be said to be the result of labor and machines applied to new land, under the influence of $120,000,000 expended in constructing means of transportation, and in employing a portion of the 1,331,000 new settlers upon those lands. Thus, we see to what an extent the co-operative power of capital with labor-saving machines and easy means of transportation have developed surplus food.

So, too, in the manufacture of clothing materials, steam driven-machines have supplanted manual labor with the same results. The cotton trade powerfully illustrates this increase of capital by machine industry. In 1793, an industrious hand could in a day clean one pound of cotton from the seed for the use of the manufacturer. The invention of the gin enabled the same hand to clean 400 pounds in a day, or, in other words, by this invention, the product of the same manual labor bestowed upon cotton pickings was increased four hundred-fold. At the same time, inventions were made in carding and spinning by which one man could do the work that before required 2,200 men. Soon after inventions in weaving were introduced, by which a girl could do the work of 30 men. When the white cloth is made, it is printed by a process which enables one man to do better what before required 200 men. At the close of

* We make up these figures for Chicago from the Board of Trade returns. They differ somewhat from a table given in the last number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, which table was obtained from another source.

the last century to print a piece of calico in one color required 448 applications of the printing block, all of which was done by hand. To-day a machine, with one man, will print 12 colors at the rate of a *mile of cloth an hour*, or 12,000 yards per day. Under the action of these and numerous other inventions the entire cotton trade in Europe and America has risen as follows:

	Supply of cotton, pounds.	Price in Liverpool.	Yards cloth made.
1800.....	54,203,433	48 c.	162,610,299
1860.....	2,361,444,616	6	7,064,833,646

In the United States the people use about twenty-five yards of cotton cloth per head per annum, and at this rate the cloth manufactured in 1860 would have supplied 280,000,000 of people. Without the machines it would have required, to produce the same goods, 8,000,000 in cleaning the cotton and 70,000,000 to weave it. These are a few of the processes by which machines in the cotton trade alone have contributed to produce wealth. But this trade is not peculiarly affected; every branch of industry has had its productive power increased in a similar manner. Wagon making, as an instance, is so systematized that a well known factory turned out for the government one every forty-five minutes. There are other establishments where the steam power, concentrating the work of 300 men, converts rough lumber into pleasure carriages at the rate of one an hour. The power of production in the sewing machine is enormous. In a hearing before the commissioner in relation to Howe's patent, a shirt maker stated that he used 400 machines, and that they did the work of 2,000 hand sewers. A clothier stated that in his establishment the saving of wages by machines was $100,000 per annum, and that when the machines are generally adopted, the saving in the trade for the whole Union would be $75,000,000 per annum. It is estimated that 25,000 girls with machines will do the same work in a year that would require 300,000 without machines.

Thus in every branch of industry where capital and labor have been employed to produce food, or clothing, or dwellings, or furniture, or any of the many articles which enter into civilized life, the effect of manual labor has been increased from ten to some hundreds of times through the inventive genius of the people.

The whole productive power, therefore, of 6,000,000 active male inhabitants of the Union, in 1860, was, under all circumstances, equal to that of 60,000,000 in 1800. Doubtless the yearly consumption of these persons was also ten times as much as at the beginning of the century, (that is, each person enjoyed ten times as much of the products of his industry); but nevertheless the accumulating surplus was annually much larger, and has progressed in an increased ratio ever since—every application of capital stimulating a more advantageous production. The forms in which capital has accumulated have been, as we have seen, in dwellings and public buildings, gas, water, and other companies, in manufactures and machinery, and, to an enormous extent, in the means of transportation, in plank roads, railroads, canals, sailing tonnage and steam tonnage, all of which has tended to cheapen transportation and also to equalize the value of land, which, from the government price of $1 25 per acre, has gradually risen to an average value of $100 per acre for all east of

the Mississippi. The reduced cost of transportation may be illustrated in the curious fact that in the war of 1812, when it was necessary to send arms to the lakes, it required six weeks and an expense of $1,000 to send a gun from New York to Buffalo. The same thing may be done now in twenty-four hours and for $10.

The first demand for permanent investment of capital is in buildings for the shelter of the people. These have increased in number as the population has increased, and also have improved in style and splendor as the people have become more wealthy. The houses of 1798 had an average value of about $500, as appears from the above table. The most detailed returns of houses which has been made was that of the New York census of 1855, giving the number of dwellings at 522,321, of which 1,617 were in New York, valued at $32,267,340, or $20,000 each; 57,450 brick houses, of an average value of $5,433; 36,221 churches, valued at $87,049,459; 397,638 farm houses, the average value of which was $748. If this latter be taken as the average value of all the houses in the Union in 1860, there has been invested in dwellings $3,326,000,000 in sixty years, and of this sum $900,000,000 has been so applied in the last ten years. Machinery has entered largely into the preparation of materials for these houses. The working and transportation of stone, the manufacture of brick, and the working of lumber has undergone immense improvements. In 1860, there were delivered 1,661,568,214 feet at the leading lumber markets of the United States, which was valued at $31,931,364, and no department of industry has been more aided by machinery than that of preparing this material for building purposes.

The same general circumstances facilitated the construction of shipping, which, from a tonnage of 201,562 in 1800, worth $20,156,200, has risen to 5,049,808 tons, worth $252,491,000 in 1860. These figures for 1860 embraces 78,027 tons of ocean steamers, and 651,363 tons of coasting and river steamers. These latter imparted the first great impulse to Western settlement, giving the settlers the means of getting their products to market. Before that they found it necessary to follow the great streams to the gulf in flat boats, and the return trip from New Orleans to Cincinnati required three months—an operation which, by the use of steam, has been reduced to three days, and freights have thus been brought to a very low figure. This saving of time is equivalent to a great increase of capital, since it can be turned so much oftener. The same remark applies to the tonnage in the foreign trade, since the greater speed of the vessels enables them to make a greater number of passages in a given time and with a diminished ratio of loss. Thus, by means of inventions in steam and machinery the productive powers of the people have been made tenfold greater, and the time and expense of interchange have been reduced in a similar degree.

The value of the land which has been settled and brought under taxable valuation has increased, it appears, over $11,170,000,000 since the first census. During the same time invested capital has increased $1,860,000,000. Of this amount $1,400,000,000 has come into existence within the last twenty years, or since the great revulsion of 1837, when the current of investments was turned from banks, which facilitated the exchange of existing commodities, to such investments as facilitated production, or, as in the case of railroads, make productive powers available. This increased value of land cannot all of it be called enhanced wealth,

since after settlement it is intrinsically no greater than before, and yet its value has actually become greater in various ways, as for instance, by clearing and enclosing it and preparing it for cultivation, and drawing from it its annual crops. The settlement of the lands has been due to immigration and the increased numbers of the people, and each able-bodied settler adds his labor, as well as the money he spends in improving it, to the value of the premises he occupies. The arrivals from abroad are, as we have before stated, about 3,500,000, who have brought with them nearly $500,000,000 in capital, much of which has been invested in land.

So, too, California, with its wealth, has helped to increase all values. It has been estimated that since its discovery about six hundred millions of capital has been sent there, which has returned in the shape of gold, and here used in developing wealth of every kind, greatly stimulating production in all branches of industry.

From the above it appears that the capital accumulated since 1790, or in 70 years, and used in constructing houses and invested in stocks, was $5,186,0000,000, or an average of $73,700,000 per annum, as follows:

Invested in stock, etc., since 1790.....	$1,860,000,000
" " construction of houses.....	3,326,000,000
Total.....	$5,186,000,000

In the last twenty years the accumulation from these sources was $125,000,000 per annum, while in the first fifty years it was only $13,000,000 per annum. Thus the accumulation per annum, in these items, has been ten times as much as in the previous fifty years, while in the 180 years before the era of inventions there appears to have been little or no accumulation—a fact due in some degree to the absence of the co-operative principle of employing individual savings. This principle was well understood in the case of bank deposits, where the loose funds of dealers formed a common fund from which the pressing wants of a portion were supplied, but it was not generally applied to productive purposes.

Considering, then, the facts above set forth, the vast accumulations since the beginning of this century cease to be matter of wonder. We must also conclude, from these facts, that, under like favorable circumstances, national wealth will increase in the future far more rapidly even than during the past few years; for the power of individual production having, as we have seen, been multiplied many times, while the population has increased rapidly, the national savings must each succeeding year show the same proportionate increase. The wonderful point which the income of the nation had reached at the last census is indicated by the following table. To estimate the income we use the figures before given, showing the national accumulations in 1860, and compare them with the returns in 1800, calling 5 per cent as the probable returns from the lands; 10 per cent from the houses;* 20 per cent the profits on exports, and in manufactures allow one half for material.

* It will be remembered that we have valued the houses of the country at the low average of $748 each, and therefore consider that 10 per cent on that valuation is not too high an estimate of the income received.

NATIONAL INCOME OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1800 AND 1860.

	1800.		
	Value.		Income.
Lands	$479,249,636	5 per cent	$33,547.474
Houses	140,683,984	10 "	14,088.398
Stocks	70,500,000	actual	4,200,000
Manufactures	62,766,385	one-half	31,383,191
Exports	29,363,464	20 per cent	3,083,219
Total income			$86,302,282

	1860.		
	Value.		Income.
Lands	$9,317,692,261	5 per cent	$465,884,613
Houses	3,466,983,000	10 "	346,698,400
Stocks	2,211,290,000	actual	110,564.500
Manufactures	1,981,211,201	one-half	990,605,100
Exports	276,679,988	20 per cent	55,335,997
Total income			$1,969,088,610

Thus the income from the sources here designated was in 1800, $21 per head of the population, and in 1860, it was $62 per head. It is obvious, however, from what we have previously remarked, that these money values by no means express the whole profit, since, if a farmer can from the same land produce by said machines two bushels of grain where he got one before, and can get for those two bushels 20 yards of cloth where he before got six, evidently he receives nearly seven times as much for his own time and labor as he did before. In other words, $100,000,000 worth of goods express seven times as much capital as at the opening of the century. Thus national resources have advanced in an almost geometrical ratio. But it must be borne in mind that during all this time there has been comparatively little drawn from reproductive occupations in the shape of government taxes. Individuals have been allowed to accumulate and to invest and receive the benefit of their entire accumulations. A system of taxation, by drawing steadily through good and bad years upon the capital that employs industry, will of course be felt to some extent in decreased savings. But what we have said above shows that the country can easily carry and pay the present war debt and the present taxation, and with peace once again blessing our land, we should soon pass beyond our former prosperity.

THE ISLAND OF ST. DOMINGO.

BY A. K. SHEPHERD.

On the sixth of December, 1492, after discovering the Bahamas and Cuba, Columbus descried the mountains of Hayti rising in shadowy outline from the blue Caribean Sea, and he slowly beat up towards the coast, the beauties of the Island gradually revealing themselves to his gaze, the rich forests and luxuriant plains spreading out towards lofty mountains clothed in the rich vegetation of the tropics.

Here those few adventures laid the foundation of that dominion which in an incredibly short space of time the Spaniards extended over an entire continent, creating an immense empire populous with cities and towns long before the other nations of Europe awoke to the full realization of the existence of the new world; an empire second in extent and importance not even to Rome in its palmiest days.

To one approaching the island from the barren shores of the north in winter, Hayti has lost none of the charms which struck the Spaniards with admiration three hundred and seventy years ago. There are still the waving palms, the dark back-ground of mountains, the same blue sky, and the balmy air redolent of perfumes, though human passion has wrought many a change since the simple-minded Indians first gazed with awe upon the ship of Columbus.

The aborigines of this as well as other of the Antilla islands, although not so far advanced in the path of civilization as the Aztics or Peruvians, were nevertheless of a much superior type to the Indians of the north, or to the Caribs and natives of the Spanish main. They were a mild and peaceable race and not without some very interesting traits of character.

Their religion, in particular, was of a more elevated nature than that even of the more cultivated Aztics, and was precisely the belief of modern Spiritualists. They believe in but one God, and that souls immediately upon leaving the earth entered a state of existence very nearly allied to the terrestial, and connected with the Supreme Being by an ever ascending scale of spirits. Those who last left the body were supposed to be still able to communicate with their earthly friends, and were called the Zemes, and occupied much the same position with regard to the Haytiens, that the Penates did to the Romans. The late Archbishop of St. Domingo possessed an old parchment account of the trial of some Indians accused of sorcery and of invoking spirits by the aid of a liquid distilled from a plant called Zamiaca, which also contained a fibre that the Indians made into a garment they wore to assist in the working of the charm derived from the liquor.

Under the influence of this potation, and enveloped in the robe of Zamiaca, the queen of the tribe retired to a cavern near the seacoast and consulted the spirits of her ancestors with regard to matters of state each year at the vernal equinox, or new year season of the Indians.

This and other accounts of singular customs existing among the natives were given in the manuscript, which also furnished a strong comment

upon the barbarities practised upon the Indians by the Spaniards, who killed thousands of them in digging the wells and building the immense fortifications for the Capital.

Indeed it is to this severity towards the Indians, this short-sighted policy of Spain, that all the future evil that befell the island are to be attributed; for it was to relieve the Indians from their bondage that Las Casas introduced negro slavery, through a mistaken philanthrophy, which has cursed not only St. Domingo but the entire continent.

Few or no traces of Indian blood can now be found upon the island, the western portion being inhabited almost exclusively by blacks, and the eastern portion by negros, mulattos and Spaniards.

The west end of St. Domingo, about one third the entire island, now constituting the negro republic of Hayti, was a Spanish colony in common with the eastern part, till it was seized by the bucaneers in the time of Louis XIV. and annexed to France, to which country it belonged till the negro insurrection in 1791. From this time till 1796 there were continual wars between the French, English, Spanish and negroes, under Toussaint L'Ouverture, resulting in the independence of the island, with L'Ouverture at the head of the government. Retaken by France in 1802, it again become a separate nation in 1804 with Dessalines, a negro slave, Emperor. After innumerable revolutions and internal wars, in 1821 Hayti became united with St. Domingo or the eastern portion of the island, which, under the Spaniards, had long been in a languishing condition, and the two sections thus united became a republic with General Boyer as President.

In 1844, a division again occurred into two republics, with Santa Anna (not the Mexican) as President of the Spanish part, which was called the Dominican Republic. It remained thus divided till March, 1861, when Santa Anna sold out the Republic to Spain for twelve thousand dollars a year—and a large estate. This surrender of the island to Spain was opposed by a large portion of the inhabitants who were desirous of maintaining a Republican form of government, and had been, previous to the annexation, in treaty with a prominent American, who they hoped would bring about a union with the United States—a union which would have been consummated to the advantage of the latter but for the stupidity of the Pierce Administration, which, in common with all administrations, has shown itself entirely inadequate to foreign diplomacy.

One such island would be of more value to the American nation than any two of our inland territories or seceded States; but the American mania for extension has always regarded quantity more than quality, not considering the fact, that a few such central points as the Isthmus of Panama, the West India Islands, the Sandwich Islands, &c., are worth far more to a maritine and commercial nation than swampy Floridas and Louisianas of much greater extent.

St. Domingo, although capable of becoming again the richest of the Antillas, is now but a bill of expense to Spain: $25,000 per annum to a Captain General; $40,000 to an Archbishop, and other salaries to the amount of $720,000 per annum, have thus far not brought an equivalent to the royal treasury, though far from being despondent the Cortez are even now scheming for the possession of the Haytian Republic. This they hope to obtain by winking at Napoleon's operations in Mexico, while he winks at their's in Hayti.

Immediately upon the arrival of the Spaniards in St. Domingo property of all kinds advanced to an enormous extent; houses in the Capital that could be bought for one thousand dollars rented for five and six hundred a year. Spain remembering the wealth she formerly derived from the colony which once exported annually $25,000,000 in gold, and large quantities of sugar, began to make improvements in the Capital, to make it worthy the residence of vice-royalty. Old ruins were repaired and made into dwellings fit for the aristocracy, and the city soon assumed quite an animated appearance.

The capital is pleasantly located at the mouth of the Ozania river, which is of sufficient size to allow vessels of ordinary capacity to lie at the wharf. The town has been of great importance, and two hundred and fifty years ago contained nearly 100,000 inhabitants, though it has now dwindled down to about 20,000. The city was taken by Drake in 1586, and was very much damaged by an earthquake in 1684, which, with the two massacres, have made its history quite eventful.

The old walls and fortifications are still standing, and are in an excellent state of preservation. There are also many fine ruins, very picturesque, with the broad leaves of the banana and the graceful palms growing amid crumbling arches and fallen domes and towers.

The brick cross and house erected by Columbus, and the palace erected by Bartholomew, are still to be seen perfect, with the exception of the roofs.

The island of St. Domingo is acknowledged by good judges to be the most fertile of the West Indies by nature, and the only reason for its having remained so far behind Cuba and Porto Rico is, that with a small population of but 225,000, harassed by continual wars with Hayti, with an imbecile government, with no roads or other essentials of civilization, the inhabitants settled down to a life of indolence in a climate where nature removed them from the necessity of laboring. Under the Spanish or any other government which will pursue an enlightened policy, and offer inducements to colonists and settlers, the island would very soon rival its more flourishing neighbors.

The topographical features of St. Domingo mark it as a place well adapted for a numerous and thrifty population. Two high mountain ranges traverse the interior from east to west, and from these project numerous spurs or short ranges towards the north and south, giving to the surface of the country a general diversity.

Between the two Sierras is the beautiful Vega Rëal or Royal Plain, so graphically described in Irving's Columbus. Here the climate is exceedingly salubrious and the soil very fertile. In this valley lies the town of Santiago de los Caballeros, the next in size to St. Domingo city. In the river which flows through Santiago—the river Yagui—after a heavy rain storm particles of gold may be found washed upon the shores, in the town itself. Years ago the place was filled with goldsmiths, who carried on the principal branch of industry of the district. Many of the streams of the island contain gold, and I was shown some fine specimens that were found within a few miles of the capital. Copper mines have also been opened within thirty miles of St. Domingo city, and are being worked by an English company. A quicksilver mine exists within the very walls of the city, in the ruin convent of San Francisco, but working it is prohibited by the government. A coal mine has been found on the

bay of Samana, from which coal has been taken by the Spanish steamers, and pronounced by the officers of superior quality.

Coal oil has recently been discovered near Azua on the south coast, and not far from there—twenty miles from Barahona—is a valuable salt mine, which an American gentleman has obtained the privilege of working. Thus it will be seen that the mineral resources of the country afford numerous avenues to wealth if only pursued by enterprise and intelligence.

No better field for emigration exists. Land has a merely nominal value, as agriculture is still in its infancy. The natives only care to raise a few bananas and a little corn, with a few oranges and cocoanuts or sugar cane, and their wants are supplied; that done, there is no further care. They use no implements to cultivate the soil; hoes, ploughs and harrows are unknown; the sun and rain are the only manure, and yet two crops a year are gathered. With all the bounty of nature towards this island, Indian corn was $2\frac{1}{4}$ a bushel, and though the trade winds blow continually, there is not such a thing as a mill in the country, and all the corn is mashed by hand.

The land is of every kind, suitable for various classes of products, heavily timbered near the rivers with mahogany, logwood, lignum vitæ, &c., interspersed with swampy tracts, well adapted to rice culture. Farther inland are rolling prairies with rich pasturage for herds, and broad tracts of thinly inhabited country, where all the products of a tropical climate grow wild. Cotton is perennial, not requiring to be renewed as in our Seceded States. Sugar cane sprouts season after season from the same root, and coffee, chocolate and tobacco are of peculiar excellence. In fact nothing is wanting to render St. Domingo the "queen of the Antillas" but emigrants. With emigrants come roads, machinery, improved agriculture and all the elements of civilization. Of this the Spanish Government are aware, and they offer inducements to emigrants, with the object of settling the island with an industrious and thrifty population.

All implements, furniture, stock, building materials, &c., for the use of of settlers are admitted free of duty, and the colonists are exempt from taxes for the period of ten years. With a policy thus liberal, steadily pursued, St. Domingo will soon attain more than its former importance and again enrich the mother country with the products of its mines and soil.

AGREEMENT AND ASSENT.

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OF THE LEGAL MEANING OF AGREEMENT.

No CONTRACT which the law will recognize and enforce exists, until the parties to it have agreed upon the same thing, in the same sense. Thus, in a case where the defendants by letter offered to the plaintiffs a certain quantity of "good" barley, at a certain price. Plaintiffs replied: "We accept your offer, expecting you will give us fine barley and full weight." The jury found that there was a distinction in the trade between the words "good" and "fine," and the court held that there was not a sufficient acceptance to sustain an action for non-delivery of the barley. So where a person sent an order to a merchant for a particular quantity of goods on certain terms of credit, and the merchant sent a less quantity of goods, and at a shorter credit, and the goods were lost by the way, it was held by the court that the merchant must bear the loss; for there was no contract, express or implied, between the parties.

There is an apparent exception to this rule, when, for example, A declares that he was not understood by B, or did not understand B, in a certain transaction, and that there is therefore no bargain between them; and B replies by showing that the language used on both sides was explicit and unequivocal, and constituted a distinct contract. Here, B would prevail. The reason is, that the law presumes that every person means that which he distinctly says. If A had offered to sell B his horse for twenty dollars, and received the money, and then tendered to B his cow, on the ground that he was thinking only of his cow, and used the word horse by mistake, this would not avoid his obligation, unless he could show that the mistake was known to B; and then the bargain would be fraudulent on B's part. This would be an extreme case; but difficult questions of this sort often arise. If A had agreed to sell, and had actually delivered, a cargo of shingles at "$3 25," supposing that he was to receive that price for a "bunch," which contains five hundred, and B supposed that he had bought them at that price for a "thousand," which view should prevail? The answer would be, first, that if there was, honestly and actually, a mutual mistake, there was no contract, and the shingles should be returned. But, secondly, if a jury should be satisfied, from the words used, from the usage prevailing where the bargain was made and known to the parties, or from other circumstances attending the bargain, that B knew that A was expecting that price for a bunch, B would have to pay it; and if they were satisfied that A knew that B supposed himself to be buying the shingles by the thousand, then A could not reclaim the shingles, nor recover more than that price. There was such a case so decided.

In construing a contract, the actual and honest intention of the parties is always regarded as an important guide. But it must be their intention

as expressed in the contract. If the terms of the contract be wholly unambiguous, there is no need of, and no room for, construction.

If the parties, or either of them, show that a bargain was honestly but mistakenly made, which was materially different from that intended to be made, it may be a good ground for declaring that there was no contract. But it would not be a good ground for substituting the contract they had not made, but intended to make, for that which they had made, but had not intended to make.

On this subject there is another rule of frequent application; namely, that when any written instrument does not express the real intention of the parties in consequence of some mistake in the language used, as by the use of one word when the parties intended another, such instrument will be corrected by a court of equity, and made to conform to what the parties intended.

But only mistakes of fact can be corrected; no man being permitted to take advantage of a mistake of the law, either to enforce a right, or avoid an obligation; for it would be obviously dangerous and unwise to encourage ignorance of the law, by permitting a party to profit, or to escape, by his ignorance. But the law which one is required at his peril to know, is the law of his own country. Ignorance of the law of a foreign State is ignorance of fact. In this respect the several States of the Union are foreign to each other. Hence, money paid through ignorance or mistake of the law of another State may be recovered back.

Fraud annuls all obligation and all contracts into which it enters, and the law relieves the party defrauded. If both of the parties are fraudulent, neither can take advantage of the fraud of the other; and if one is fraudulent, he cannot set his own fraud aside for his own benefit. Thus, if one gives a fraudulent bill of sale of property, for the purpose of defrauding his creditors, *he* cannot set that bill aside and annul that sale, although those who are injured by it may.

WHAT IS AN ASSENT.

The most important application of the rule stated at the beginning of this article, is the requirement that an acceptance of a proposition must be a simple and direct affirmative, in order to constitute a contract. For if the party receiving the proposition or offer accepts it on any condition, or with any change of its terms or provisions which is not altogether immaterial, it is no contract until the party making the offer consents to these modifications.

Therefore, as we have already seen, if a party offers to buy certain goods at a certain price, and directs that the goods shall be sent to him, and the owner accepts the offer and sends the goods as directed, and they are lost on the way, it is the buyer's loss, because the goods were his by the sale, which was completed when the offer was accepted. But if the owner accepts the offer, and in his acceptance makes any material modification of its terms, and then sends the goods, and they are lost, it is his loss now, because the contract of sale was not completed.

Nor will a voluntary compliance with the conditions and terms of a proposed contract make it a contract obligatory on the other party, unless there have been an accession to, or an acceptance of, the proposition itself. Thus, where one offers to pay the debts of a certain person, in a

certain way, if the creditor would forbear to sue them, and the creditor did forbear to sue them, but gave no assent to or acceptance of the proposition, and after a time sought to make the guarantor liable, the court held that he was not liable because there was no assent or acceptance, and therefore no bargain. But there may be cases in which an offer may come from a distance, or be such in its purpose and terms that an immediate compliance with it may be the only, or at least the ready and proper way, of signifying acceptance and assent. Thus, in general, if A says to B, if you will do this, I will do that; and B instantly does what was proposed to him, this doing so is an acceptance, and A is bound. But if the doing of the thing may be something else than acceptance of the offer, or if the thing may be done for some other reason than to signify an acceptance or assent, there must be acceptance also, or there is no bargain.

OF OFFERS GIVING TIME.

It sometimes happens that one party makes another a certain offer, and gives him a certain time in which he may accept it. The law on this subject was once somewhat uncertain, but may now be considered as settled. It is this. If A makes an offer to B, which B at once accepts, there is a bargain. If B declines or neglects to accept it at once, but takes time to consider, and then accepts, A may say he has changed his mind and does not make that offer. If A when he makes the offer says to B that he may have a certain time wherein to accept it, and is paid by B for thus giving him time, he cannot withdraw the offer; or rather, if he withdraws it, for this breach of his contract, the other party, B, may have his action for damages; and an acceptance by B within the time is obligatory upon A. If A is not paid for giving the time, A may then withdraw the offer at once, or whenever he pleases, provided B has not previously accepted it. But if B has accepted the offer before the time which was given expired, and before the offer was withdrawn, then A is bound, although he gave the time voluntarily and without consideration. For his offer is to be regarded as a continuing offer during all the time given, unless it be withdrawn. A railroad company asked for the terms of certain land they thought they might wish to buy. The owner said in a letter, they might have it at a certain price, if they took it within thirty days. After some twenty-five days, the railroad company wrote accepting the offer. The owner says, no, I have altered my mind; the land is worth more; and I have a right to withdraw my offer, because you paid me nothing for the time of thirty days allowed you. But the court held that he was bound, because this was an offer continued through the thirty days, unless withdrawn. They said that the writing when made was without consideration, and did not therefore form a contract. It was then but an offer to contract, and the parties making the offer most undoubtedly might have withdrawn it at any time before acceptance. But when the offer was accepted, the minds of the parties met, and the contract was complete, and no withdrawal could then be made.

OF A BARGAIN BY CORRESPONDENCE.

When a contract is made by correspondence, the question occurs, At what time, or by what act, is the contract completed? The cases on this

subject have fluctuated very much; but the law may now be considered as conclusively settled both in England and in this country. If A writes to B proposing to him a contract, this is a continued proposition or offer of A until it reaches B, and for such time afterwards as would give B a reasonable opportunity of accepting it. But it may be withdrawn by A at any time before acceptance. It is not however withdrawn, in law, until a notice of withdrawal reaches B. This is the important point. Thus if A, in Boston, writes to B, in New Orleans, offering him a certain price for one hundred bales of cotton; and the next day alters his mind, and writes to B, withdrawing his offer; if the first letter reaches B *before* the second reaches him, although *after* it was written and mailed, B has a right to accept the offer, and by his acceptance bind A. But if B delays his acceptance until the second letter reaches him, the offer is then effectually withdrawn. It is a sufficient acceptance if B writes to A declaring his acceptance, and puts his letter into the post-office. It seems now quite clear, that as soon as the letter leaves the post-office, or is beyond the reach of the writer, the acceptance is complete. That is, on the 5th of May, A in Boston writes B in New Orleans, offering to buy certain goods there at a certain price. On the 8th of May, A writes that he has altered his mind and cannot give so much, and mails the letter. On the 12th of May, B in New Orleans receives the first letter, and the next day, the 13th, answers it, saying that he accepts the offer and mails his letter. On the 14th, he receives the second letter of A withdrawing the offer. Nevertheless the bargain is complete and the goods are sold. But if B had kept his letter of acceptance by him until he had received A's letter of withdrawal, he could not then have put his letter into the mail and bound A by his acceptance.

The late cases would also indicate, that if the letter of withdrawal reaches B after he has put his letter of acceptance into the post-office, but before it has gone, and while he could still take it back if he chose, he may disregard the withdrawal of the offer, and let his letter go on its way. This certainly is not settled; but the *dicta* of judges, and the principles on which the later decisions rest, would seem to lead to the conclusion that the contract is entirely complete as soon as the letter is in the post-office.

The party making the offer by letter is not bound to use the same means for withdrawing it which he uses for making it; because any withdrawal, however made, terminates the offer, if only it reaches the other party before his acceptance. Thus, if A in the case just supposed, a week after he has sent his offer by letter, telegraphs a withdrawal to B, and this withdrawal reaches him before he accepts the offer, this withdrawal is effectual. So if he sent his offer by letter to England, in a sailing ship, and a fortnight after sent a revocation in a steamer, if this last arrives before the first arrived and was accepted, it would be an effectual revocation.

WHAT EVIDENCE MAY BE RECEIVED IN REFERENCE TO A WRITTEN CONTRACT.

If an agreement upon which a party relies be oral only, it must be proved by evidence, and any evidence tending to show what the contract was is admissible. But if the contract be reduced to writing, it proves itself; and now no evidence whatever is receivable for the purpose of varying the contract or affecting its obligations. The reasons are obvious.

The law prefers written to oral evidence, from its greater precision and certainty, and because it is less open to fraud. And where parties have closed a negotiation and reduced the result to writing, it is to be presumed that they have written all they intended to agree to, and therefore what is omitted was finally rejected by them.

But some evidence may always be necessary, and therefore admissible; as, evidence of the identity of the parties to the contract, or of the things which form its subject-matter. Quite often, neither the court nor the jury can know what person, or what thing, or what land, a contract relates to, unless the parties agree in stating this, or extrinsic evidence shows it. And upon the whole, we cannot state the rule on this subject better than, that, while no evidence is reteivable to *contradict* or *vary* a written contract, all evidence—not otherwise inadmissible—may be received to explain its meaning, and show what the contract is in fact.

There are some obvious inferences from this rule. The first is, that, as evidence is admissible only to explain the contract, if the contract needs no explanation, that is, if it be by itself perfectly explicit and unambiguous, evidence is inadmissible, because it is wholly unnecessary excepting to vary the meaning and force of the contract, and that is not permitted. Another, following from this, is, that if the evidence purports, under the name of explanation, to give to the contract a meaning which its words do not fairly bear, this is not permitted, because such evidence would in fact make a new contract.

A frequent use of oral evidence is to explain, by means of persons experienced in the subject-matter of the contract, the meaning of technical or peculiar words and phrases; and such witnesses are called experts, and are very freely admitted.

It may be remarked, too, that a written receipt for money is not within the general rule as to written contracts, being always open, not only to explanation, but even to contradiction, by extrinsic evidence. But this is true only of a simple receipt. If a written instrument not only recites or acknowledges the receiving of money or goods, but contains also a contract or grant, such instrument, as to the contract or grant, is no more to be affected by extrinsic evidence than if it contained no receipt; but as to the receipt itself, it may be varied or contradicted in the same manner as if it contained nothing else. Thus, where a receipt was given for money, and it was said therein that the money was received "for safe-keeping," the court would not permit the party who gave the money to prove by other evidence that he gave it in payment of a debt, or for any other purpose than "safe-keeping." But they would permit either party to show that the amount was more or less than the sum stated. So if a deed recites that it was made in "consideration of ten thousand dollars, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged," the grantor may sue for the money, or any part of it, and prove that the amount was not paid; for this affects only the *receipt part* of the deed. But he cannot say that the grant of the land was void because he never had his money, nor that any agreement the deed contained was void for such a reason; because, if he proved that the money was not paid for the purpose of thus annulling his grant or agreement, he would be offering evidence to affect the *other* part of the deed; and that he cannot do.

A certain legal inference from a written promise can no more be rebutted by evidence than if it were written. Thus, it is not only true that, if

A, by his note, promises to pay B a sum of money, in sixty days, he cannot when called upon resist the claim by proving that B, when the note was made, agreed to wait ninety days; but if A promise to pay money and no time is set, this is by force of law a promise to pay on demand, and evidence is not receivable to show that a distant period was agreed upon. Still, where a contract is *entire*, and a part only is reduced to writing, and the law does not supply the residue, evidence may be received to prove that residue; but not if it materially changes or contradicts what is written. As where a memorandum was made when a horse was hired, in the words, "six weeks at two guineas," and signed, the court would not receive evidence as to the time for which he was hired, nor as to the money to be paid; but permitted evidence as to all other terms of the bargain.

The construction or interpretation of a written contract may sometimes be very material to the interests or rights of third parties, who had nothing to do with writing it, and were in no way privy to it. In such case, these parties may show by evidence what the contract which purports to have been written really was, as between the parties to it, as freely as if it had not been written.

Generally speaking, all written instruments are construed and interpreted by the law according to the simple, customary, and natural meaning of the words used.

It should be added, that when a contract is so obscure or uncertain that it must be set wholly aside, and regarded as no contract whatever, it can have no force or effect upon the rights or relations of the parties, but they are remitted to their original rights and obligations.

OF CUSTOM, OR USAGE.

A custom, or usage, which may be regarded as appropriate to a contract, has often great weight in reference to it. This it may have, first, as to the construction or meaning of its words; and next, as to the intention or understanding of the parties.

The ground and reason for this influence of a custom is this. If it exist so widely and uniformly among merchants, and for so long a time, that every merchant must be considered as knowing it, and acting with reference to it, then it ought to have the same force as if both parties expressly adopted it; because each party has a right to think that the other acted upon it.

Sometimes this is carried very far. In one English case, a man had agreed to leave in a certain rabbit warren *ten thousand rabbits;* and the other party was permitted to prove that, by the usage of that trade, a thousand meant one hundred dozen, or *twelve hundred.* In an American case, a man agreed to pay a carpenter twelve shillings a day for every man employed by him about a certain building; the carpenter was permitted to prove that, by the usage of that trade, "a day" meant ten hours' work; and as his men had worked twelve and a half, he was permitted to charge fifteen shillings, or for one and one-fourth days' work, for every day so spent.

In these cases the custom affected the meaning of the words. But it also has the effect of words; as if a merchant employed a broker to sell his ship, and nothing was said about terms, and the broker did something about it, and the ship was sold, if the broker could prove a universal and

well-established custom of that place, that for doing what he did under the employment he was entitled to full commissions, he would have them, as if they were expressly promised.

Any custom will be regarded by the court, which comes within the *reason* of the rule that makes a custom a part of the contract. It comes within the reason only when it is *so far* established, and *so well* known to the parties, that it must be supposed that their contract was made with reference to it. For this purpose, the custom must be established and not casual, uniform and not varying, general and not personal, and known to all the parties. But the degree in which these characteristics must belong to the custom will depend in each case upon its peculiar circumstances. Let us suppose a contract for the making of an article which has not been made until within a dozen years, and only by a dozen persons. Words are used in this contract of which the meaning is to be ascertained; and it is proved that these words have been used and understood in reference to this article, always, by all who have ever made it, in one way. Then this custom will be permitted to explain and interpret the words of the parties. But if the article had been made a hundred years or more, in many countries and by multitudes of persons, the evidence of this use of these words by a dozen persons in a dozen years would not be sufficient to give to this practice all the force of *custom*.

Other facts must be considered; as, how far the meaning sought to be put on the words by custom varies from their common meaning in the dictionary, or from general use; and whether other makers of the article use these words in various senses, or use other words to express the alleged meaning. Because the *main question* is always this: Can it be said that both parties *must* have used, or *ought* to have used, these words in this sense, and that each party had good reason to believe that the other party so used them? Thus, when the brief but violent "Morus multicaulis" (or mulberry) speculation prevailed, a few years ago, a man made a contract to sell and deliver a certain number of the trees "a foot high"; and the buyer was permitted to prove that, by the usage and custom of all who dealt in that article, the length was measured to the top of the ripe wood only, rejecting the green and immature top; and the "foot high" was to be so understood.

No custom, however, can be proved or permitted to influence the construction of a contract, or vary the rights of the parties, if the custom itself be illegal. For this would be to permit, or even oblige, parties to break the law, because others had broken it.

Nor would the courts sanction a custom which was in itself unreasonable and oppressive. There was a vessel cast ashore on the coast of Virginia, and the master sold the cargo on the spot; and on trial the jury found that he was authorized to do so by the usage there; but the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, where the ship and cargo were insured, said that the usage was unreasonable, and they would not allow it. The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in one case refused to allow a usage by which plasterers charged half the size of the windows at the price per square yard agreed on for the plastering of a house.

Some other instances may be cited to show how the courts have dealt with this matter of custom. In an English case, on a policy of insurance, evidence of custom was received as to whether "rice" was considered as "corn" in the memorandum. And in an American insurance case, it was

shown by usage that "roots" did not include sarsaparilla roots. In another American case, the master of a vessel was allowed, on the evidence of usage, to retain as his own perquisite a sum paid as freight for money carried by him, and the owners were discharged from liability on the contract for carrying it, because the custom made it the master's own contract. The Supreme Court of the United States permitted evidence of a custom in the banks in Washington to allow four days of grace instead of three. And in an English case, it was held that a broker, who bought shares for a person that did not take them, was authorized by usage to sell them again, and, if they brought less than the broker paid, to charge the party for whom he bought them with the difference, although this party did not know of the custom. But in another English case, one of the parties set up a usage as to the time when cloths sent for inspection should be returned. Some witnesses said three days; others said a week; and one said a month. And the court said the evidence was insufficient, because the usage must be *uniform*. So also it must be constant and not occasional. In another English case, the court remarked that the custom of merchants, or mercantile usage, does not depend upon the private opinions of merchants as to what the law is, or their opinions publicly expressed; but on their *acts*.

Lastly, no custom, however universal, or old, or known, (unless it has actually become law,) has any force whatever, if the parties see fit to exclude and refuse it expressly, or provide that the thing which the custom affects shall be done in a way different from the custom. For a custom can never be set up against either the express agreement or the clear intentions of the parties.

THE COINAGE OF NICKLES AT THE MINT.

The Philadelphia *Inquirer* of April 24th says that, during last week 53,000 nickles were coined at the United States mint. This is at the rate of $27,560 per annum in the manufacture of that insignificant coin alone. If the nickles coined had been so many eagles the amount would have reached the snug sum of about $100,000,000. This is a commentary on the capacity of the mint, as it takes the same amount of time and labor to make a nickel as it does the most valuable coin manufactured. The transactions at the mint beyond the coinage of nickels do not amount to much at present. Very little gold is being converted into currency, owing in part to its present scarcity and high premium. The deposits from Denver are, however, increasing, that place being at the present time the principal point from which the metal is obtained.

NEW GOLD MINES ON THE MISSOURI RIVER.

Indian Agent BURLEIGH writes to Commissioner DOLE that gold in immense quantities has recently been discovered near the headwaters of the Missouri, 200 miles west of Fort Benton. The mines are astonishingly rich, as specimens received by the commissioner abundantly prove. Already 800 miners have arrived from California and Columbia River. They average from $15 to $20 per day.

THE LUMBER TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1862.

The demand for lumber during 1862 has arisen not so much as usual for building, but more for foreign export, for manufactures, and government purposes. Fair prices were obtained in the New York market the first five months of the year, but during the summer they were not maintained. In the fall, however, they again advanced. We have prepared the following table of the receipts of lumber at the leading points for the two years 1860 and 1862, which shows that there has been little change in the quantity received:

RECEIPTS OF LUMBER AT THE LEADING POINTS FOR TWO YEARS.

	1860.	1862.
Detroit.....feet	76,537,000	95,491,900
Savannah.....	23,365,656	.....
Charleston.....	15,312,128	.....
Albany, (tide-water).....	377,771,762	412,105,800
Bangor.....	176,187,016	152,101,207
Cincinnati.....	32,000,000	22,202,208
Chicago.....	300,982,207	384,317,923
Milwaukee.....	56,554,000	38,858,000
Oswego.....	144,644,572	151,643,500
Cleveland.....	28,950,000	38,209,314
Toledo.....	37,458,207	47,562,118
Baltimore.....	100,728,206	61,208,101
Boston.....	131,869,857	61,208,101
Buffalo.....	68,558,151	125,289,971
Philadelphia.....	162,879,722	141,201,300
Total.....	1,734,798,484	1,797,102,197

We give below a comparative table showing the closing prices of lumber at Albany for the years 1861 and 1862. During the last three months (1863) there has been an advance in prices of about 25 per cent:

CLOSING PRICES OF LUMBER AT ALBANY FOR THE YEARS 1861 AND 1862.

	1861. December 4th.			1862 December 31st.		
Clear pine.....per M.	$28 00	@	$30 00	$32 00	@	$34 00
Fourth quality.....	19 00	@	20 00	22 00	@	25 00
Select box.....	17 00	@	18 00	20 00	@	22 00
Chemung box.....	15 00	@	16 00	17 00	@	18 00
Box.....	12 00	@	13 00	14 00	@	15 00
Five-eighths, clear.....	25 00	@	26 00	28 00	@	30 00
Fourth quality, five-eighths	18 00	@	20 00	20 00	@	25 00
Select, five-eighths.....	16 00	@	17 00	16 00	@	18 00
Box, five-eighths.....	9 00	@	10 00	9 00	@	10 00

	1861. December 4th.			1862. December 31st.		
Pine piece plank, 11 inch.	0 22	@	0 25	0 25	@	0 29
" " 10 inch.	0 20	@	0 22	0 20	@	0 25
Pine floor plank, 2d quality	0 17	@	0 19	0 17	@	0 19
" " culls. each	0 12	@	0 14	0 13	@	0 15
Spruce boards	0 10½	@	0 11	...	@	0 14
" floor plank	0 12½	@	0 13	0 16	@	0 17
" plank, 2 inch, good	0 18	@	0 20	0 23	@	0 24
Pine tally boards, good	0 15	@	0 16	0 17	@	0 18
" " 2d quality	0 14	@	0 15	0 14	@	0 15
" " culls	0 09	@	0 10	0 12	@	0 13
Hemlock boards	0 08½	@	0 09	0 10	@	0 10½
" joist, 3 x 4	0 08	@	0 09	0 09	@	0 10
" joist, 4 x 6	0 16	@	0 17	0 18	@	0 19
" wall strips, 2 x 4.	0 06	@	0 06½	...	@	0 08
Clap board, pine, clear	17 00	@	20 00	18 00	@	20 00
" " 2d quality	15 00	@	18 00	15 00	@	16 00
Ash, good ..... per M.	22 00	@	25 00	24 00	@	28 00
" second-rate	15 00	@	18 00	15 00	@	18 00
Oak	25 00	@	30 00	28 00	@	30 00
Maple joists	15 00	@	14 00	15 00	@	16 00
Black walnut, good	35 00	@	38 00	40 00	@	41 00
" 2d quality	18 00	@	22 00	20 00	@	22 00
" five-eighths	33 00	@	38 00	....	@	40 00
Sycamore, one inch	16 00	@	18 00	....	@	22 00
" five-eighths	12 00	@	15 00	....	@	18 00
Cherry, good	35 00	@	40 00	35 00	@	40 00
" second-rate	20 00	@	30 00	20 00	@	30 00
White wood, chair plank.	38 00	@	35 00	38 00	@	40 00
" one inch	20 00	@	22 00	22 00	@	25 00
" half inch	13 00	@	15 00	17 00	@	18 00
Shingles, 1st quality	5 50	@	5 75	5 50	@	5 75
" 2d quality	4 00	@	4 50	4 00	@	4 50
" common	2 00	@	3 00	2 00	@	3 00
" 1st quality, sawed	...	@	4 00	4 00	@	4 25
" 2d "	...	@	3 50	...	@	3 50
" common, sawed.	2 00	@	2 25	2 00	@	2 25
" sawed, hemlock.	2 00	@	2 50	2 00	@	2 50

We have given above the receipts of lumber at the leading points. The forests of Maine find their way from Bangor to most of the Atlantic cities, eking out the local supply for the necessary building purposes. The region of Northern New York sends down a large annual quantity to the Albany basin, where it swells the large supply that comes down the canal, and from thence is distributed everywhere through the Hudson. Southern New York and Northern Pennsylvania send down in rafts by the Susquehannah and the Delaware rivers large quantities to Philadelphia and Baltimore. At Philadelphia the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal delivers about one-third the supply. About 200,000,000 of feet also go down the Alleghany. Chicago, next to Albany, is by far the largest lumber market. The shores of Lake Michigan, particularly the Green Bay district, supply large quan-

tities required for the use of the prairie settlements, where wood is of course very scarce. The Illinois Canal carries westward the larger portion, but the Illinois Central Railroad also carries considerable, and Southern Wisconsin is now supplied from Chicago rather than as formerly from Milwaukee.

From all the sources of supply the demand is usually large, and is applied not only to the construction and reconstruction of dwellings, of which at least 200,000 new ones are required yearly, but farm fences, shipping, railroads, factories, and furniture in constantly increasing quantities. Although other materials, such as bricks, stone, and iron are coming largely into use in place of lumber, yet the use of the latter far exceeds the growth. It is estimated by the most experienced and intelligent lumbermen, that the new growth of timber falls short by at least 30 per cent of the quantity necessary to make good the stock. In ship building the dearth of timber has long been felt, and means have been taken to make substitutes for certain descriptions, without much success. At present the lumber market, although much affected by the war, which destroyed the trade in lumber at the South and changed the current of business, has been swept by the Federal Government, whose wants for war purposes are unusual and very extensive. The effect of this, added to the general inflation by reason of the over abundent issues of paper money, have, since the 1st of January, 1863, caused a rise of about 25 per cent in the price of lumber.

We now add a particular report of the lumber trade at the two points of most importance to the trade, made up from the trade reports.

CHICAGO.—At the close of the year (1862) the different yards in Chicago had, of all kinds of lumber, shingles, lath, posts, etc, 73,000,709 feet. The following tables show the quantity of lumber, shingles, and lath received and forwarded during 1862:

QUANTITY OF LUMBER, ETC., RECEIVED AT CHICAGO DURING 1862.

Sources of supply.	Lumber, feet.	Shingles, No.	Lath, No.
Lake	295,270,000	131,255,000	23,880,000
Illinois and Michigan Canal	18,238	.....	.....
Ilinois Central R. R.	1,500	.....	.....
Michigan Southern R. R.	9,370	.....	.....
Michigan Central R. R.	3,308,937	.....	.....
Pittsburgh & Fort Wayne R.R.	7,066,000	.....	.....
Total received	305,674,045	131,255,000	23,880,000
Manufactured in the city	.....	50,000,000	10,000,000
On hand at commencement of the season	78,643,878	15,307,000	7,311,800
Total	384,317,923	196,562,000	41,191,800

QUANTITY OF LUMBER FORWARDED IN 1862.

How forwarded.	Lumber, feet.	Shingles, No.	Lath, No.
Illinois & Michigan Canal	55,658,586	30,336	6,669,250
Galena & Chicago Union R. R.	23,534,160	10,149,000	5,034,000
Chicago & Rock Island R. R.	6,707,671	6,637,000	655,000
Illinois Central R. R.	44,817,680	220,000	200,000
Chicago, Bur. & Quincy R. R.	30,247,059	19,460,000	2,137,450

How forwarded.	Lumber, feet.	Shingles, No.	Lath, No.
Chicago & Northwestern R. R.	3,869,863	1,703,000	377,520
Chicago & Alton R. R.....	20,123,906	13,903,500	1,264,800
Chicago & Milwaukee R. R...	275,424	333,000	37,000
Michigan Southern R. R.....	664,075	599,000	215,000
Michigan Central R. R.....	1,253,315	2,710,794	371,580
Pittsburgh & Ft. Wayne R. R.	2,016,340	116,000	5,000
Total forwarded.....	189,277,079	55,761,630	16,966,600
City consumption.....	122,040,135	117,884,370	18,720,750
On hand at close of season...	73,000,707	22,916,000	5,504,450

ALBANY, (TIDE-WATER).—The position of Albany, at the termination of the Erie and Champlain Canals, and with the Hudson as a distributing avenue, must always make it an advantageous and important point to the lumber trade. By means of these canals it has, as stated by Mr. LACY, in his report to the Albany Board of Trade, "open water communication with the whole lumber producing regions of Canada, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Northern Pensylvania," and through the Hudson is able to distribute its receipts throughout the world. We give below the official receipts by the canals at tide-water during the past twelve years:

RECEIPTS AT TIDE-WATER OF LUMBER, SHINGLES, ETC.

	Boards and Scantling, feet.	Shingles, M.	Timber, cubic feet.	Staves, pounds.
1850.....	425,095,400	1,868,100	1,666,300	202,224,000
1851.....	427,038,600	47,900	4,666,300	155,304,000
1852.....	542,428,800	62,300	4,237,800	145,503,700
1853.....	667,516,900	38,200	5,003,900	158,163,100
1854.....	340,794,600	32,800	3,234,300	178,868,000
1855.....	242,608,200	67,600	2,244,300	199,018,000
1856.....	206,431,200	61,800	2,494,500	162,856,000
1857.....	189,648,000	86,900	1,967,600	251,786,000
1858.....	238,637,400	54,600	1,801,600	202,244,000
1859.....	352,329,600	177,000	1,269,400	261,926,000
1860.....	377,688,600	63,400	1,454,200	282,910,000
1861.....	301,607,000	45,200	1,299,800	264,228,000
1862.....	412,105,800	49,800	2,190,000	357,030,000

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

FLUCTUATING CURRENCY—CHANGE IN VALUES—OSCILLATIONS IN TRADE—ALTERNATE ANIMATION AND DEPRESSION—COST OF IMPORTS—SUGAR PRICES—GENERAL INFLUENCE—RESTRICTIONS ON GOLD DEALING—HIGH PRICES TO CONSUMERS—LEGAL TENDER EFFECT ON BANKS—CIRCULATION OF—NEW YORK CONSTITUTION—SPECIE PAYMENTS—DUTY OF SUPERINTENDENT—MANDAMUS—SPECIE MOVEMENT—CALIFORNIA REMITTANCES—BILLS OF EXCHANGE—PRODUCE—EXCHANGE TABLE RATES OF GOLD—DEBTORS ABROAD—PRICES COMPARATIVE—IMPORTS—DUTIES—VARYING COST—TAX ON CONSUMERS—EXPORTS—DEPRESSION OF BUSINESS—GOVERNMENT STOCKS—CONVERSIONS OF FIVE-TWENTIES—PRICES—CONFEDERATE LOAN—NATIONAL CREDIT.

THE most prominent influence upon the market has continued to be the fluctuating value of the paper currency, in which the values of goods are measured. That disastrous agency makes and unmakes fortunes at a turn, baffling the foresight of the most sagacious. In that effect of paper may be recognized one of its greatest evils, since the mere depreciation, if it were continuous, could be calculated upon and guarded against; but when the measure of value itself becomes the subject of speculation, and may be depressed or inflated by the hand of the issuer with the same ease as that of the aeronaut in governing a balloon, the wages and property of every one become the prey of the initiated spoiler. The great change in the prices and cost of commodities is one of the evils, but the spasmodic action of the markets is another as great. While gold rises the utmost desire to buy any and everything pervades and trade is very animated. A combination of brokers, then, by acting upon gold and bringing it down, paralyzes, as with the wand of an enchanter, the whole business community, and suddenly no one wants to buy anything. Thus a few thousand dollars lost in "bearing" the gold market, affects all property from the Atlantic to the Rocky Mountains, undermines every industry, and jeopardizes the weekly income of every family. The following figures show the effect upon a single article—that of sugar—imported into New York for four weeks:

	Gold, price.	Imported, lbs.	Cost, cents.	Duty, cents.	Gold, prem.	Exchange, prem.	Total cost pr. lb.
March 2.....	72	5,059,600	3.19	2.5	$1 80	$2 29	9.78
" 28.....	48	5,371,800	3.12	2.5	1 07	1 34	8.03
April 4.....	55	11,496,800	3 16	2.5	1 37	1 73	8.76
" 11.....	42	8,365,000	3.25	2.5	1 17	1 53	8.45

Thus week by week sugar rose and fell per pound, although the first cost abroad did not vary materially. The fluctuation in paper caused a fall of 13¼ cents per lb., or 17½ per cent for the week March 28, as compared with March 2. In the next week a rise of ⅜ of a cent took place, but the market, from being animated with the rise in February, became completely dead. The sugars that cost 9¾ cents in February could find no buyers at 8 cents March 28, and the subsequent slight advance restored no vigor to the market. The same evil influence pervaded all markets, and many importers were compelled to appeal to the auctioneers. The idea held out, that the Treasury department would be able, aided by

the bills in Congress and the Legislature against dealing in gold, to bring government money up to par, simply killed all business, because none would buy when there was a hope, however fallacious, that prices would fall heavily. In March the paper depreciation, as seen above, raised the price of sugar $4\frac{1}{16}$ cents per lb., viz: 1.8 cent premium on gold to pay duty, and 2.29 cents in the rise of exchange above the gold par. If paper should again be equal to gold those sugars that cost 9.78 cents would cost but 5.59 cents—a fall of 43 per cent—and this enormous decline threatened all goods alike. It is therefore no matter of surprise that trade came to an end. The most sagacious and intelligent merchants understood the position, and conscious that there was, despite the temporary gambling efforts to raise the price of government paper from 60 cents per dollar, no possible alternative but a further decline, held their goods firmly, and retailers and consumers were compelled to pay for daily wants the highest prices. They had no benefit from the spasmodic reactions. Another influence upon the market besides the withholding pay from the government creditors and the buying of greenbacks on speculation, based on the effect of the restrictive laws upon gold dealing, was the fear that the courts would pronounce the legal tender of the government unconstitutional, and that the banks, in consequence, would be held reponsible in specie for their issues. This apprehension caused a contraction of issues which may be expressed in the banks of three cities:

	Boston.	Philadelphia.	New York.	Total.
March, 1862.....	$5,348,138	$2,120,756	$5,368,944	$12,832,838
Dec. "	8,373,000	5,054,250	9,840,991	23,268,241
March, 1863.....	7,593,000	3,295,862	8,348,094	10,237,756

Thus at these central points the circulation nearly doubled, based on "greenbacks," during the summer. They then began to curtail, and drew in $4,000,000, when it became understood that the New York Court of Appeals, although composed of democratic judges, would, as matter of expediency, pronounce in favor of the legal validity of greenbacks as a tender. The constitution of the State requires all banks to pay their bills in specie without reference to legal tender. They are also required to give ample security that their bills shall be paid in specie. Under this constitutional requirement it is the imperative duty of the Bank Superintendent to compel them to deposit securities as fast as gold rises. The bills of the banks that have not paid in specie have many of them been protested and sent to Albany to have the law complied with. The officer does not do it, and the case comes before the courts for a *mandamus* to compel him to carry out the law.

It is evident that all values in the country having risen 50 per cent as measured in the paper, it would be ruinous to the many to pronounce that paper illegal. In the same manner the Court of Appeals, we think, at its first organization pronounced in favor of the constitutionality of the free banking law, in the case of the North American Trust Co., to protect "vested interests." In the present instance the protection is but temporary, since creditors will be first ruined and ultimately all classes. Nevertheless, the fear of being held accountable being removed from New York banks, and through them from others, gave a new impulse to the expansive movement. The attempt of the New York Legislature to re-

strain the dealing in gold had a tendency to extend the business to Jersey City.

The exports of specie continued very considerable, notwithstanding that the paralysis of business caused a great decline in the demand for bills on the part of the importers. The specie movement was as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1862.		1863.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold.
January 3.	.....	442,147	.....	681,448	35,954,550	34¼ a 34⅝
" 10.	885,928	1,035,025	1,277,788	726,746	36,770,746	34 a 39
" 17.	.....	547,703	.....	1,380,247	37,581,465	40 a 49
" 24.	627,767	322,918	678,841	780,816	38,549,794	47 a 50⅝
" 31.	.....	310,484	.....	1,331,027	38,894,840	48⅞ a 60½
February 7.	854,000	976,235	301,860	1,277,000	38,243,839	57½ a 57½
" 14.	614,146	1,156,154	359,978	1,152,646	38,426,460	53½ a 53½
" 21.	759,247	934,512	.....	520,017	37,981,310	54 a 64
" 28.	741,109	510,774	285,394	1,377,016	39,512,256	71 a 72
March 7.	679,074	585,236	1,243,551	733,643	39,705,089	52½ a 53
" 14.	677,058	477,335	.....	3,540,550	36,110,085	54½ a 54½
" 21.	.....	540,968	249,514	1,201,907	33,955,122	53 a 54½
" 28.	490,868	779,564	159,105	1,050,156	34,317,691	41 a 42
April 4.	581,293	673,826	250,778	473,385	34,257,121	53 a 54
" 11.	.....	1,505,728	250,728	607,059	35,406,145	46 a 52½
" 18.	617,279	693,436	217,602	158,427	36,761,696	52 a 53½
Total....	7,507,264	10,292,021	6,275,188	16,355,225	.....	

The exports from Boston were also pretty large, while, on the other hand, the receipts from California continued to be very limited. The larger portion of the remittances thence being to England. The effect of the bill before the New York Legislature to interfere with the rights of property in gold was, to cause it to be sent to England, where, being drawn against, the bill would pay well in New York. The most hurtful of the measures contemplated by the New York bill was the prohibiting the banks to lend on bills of exchange, which are, so to speak, the vehicles of commerce, and form the most important as well as the safest of the paper legitimately taken by the banks. The decline in bills operated adversely upon the prices of produce, causing a decline and diminishing the activity of shipments. The rates of bills were as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 3,	146 a 147½	3.85 a 3.80	56 a 56½	56 a 56½	49½ a 49½	98 a 98½
" 10,	149 a 152	3.72½ a 3.67½	56 a 58	57½ a 58½	50½ a 51½	99 a 100
" 17,	160 a 162	3.52½ a 3 45	60½ a 61½	61 a 62½	54 a 55½	108 a 110
" 24,	162½ a 163	3.50 a 3.45	61 a 61½	61½ a 62	54 a 54⅝	107 a 108½
" 31,	171 a 177	3.32 a 3.15	65½ a 66½	65 a 67	57 a 58⅝	114 a 117
Feb. 7,	169 a 173	3.30 a 3.25	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	57 a 57⅝	114 a 116
" 14,	170 a 171	3.32 a 3.27	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	56⅝ a 57½	113½ a 114½
" 21,	171 a 179½	2.20 a 3 12	67 a 68½	65 a 68½	59 a 60½	118½ a 119½
" 28,	185 a 188	3 10 a 3.00	67½ a 71	70 a 71	61⅝ a 62½	123 a 124
Mar. 7,	167 a 169	3.37½ a 3.30	64 a 64	65 a 66	55 a 55½	111 a 113
" 14,	168 a 171	3.35 a 3.30	64 a 64	64½ a 65½	55⅝ a 56⅝	112 a 114
" 21,	169½ a 171½	3.37½ a 3.27½	63½ a 63½	63½ a 64½	56 a 57	113 a 114
" 28,	157 a 161	3.57 a 3 47	61 a 62	61 a 62	53 a 54	107 a 108
April 4,	168 a 172	3.40 a 3.25	62½ a 63½	62½ a 64	55½ a 57	111 a 111
" 11,	158 a 162	3.55 a 3.45	61 a 62	61 a 62	53½ a 54½	106 a 108
" 18,	165 a 167½	3.37½ a 3.45	62½ a 62⅝	62½ a 63	54½ a 55½	108 a 110

The rates of exchange are governed almost entirely by gold, and fluctuate with the premium on it. Thus, it is assumed that the cost of a bill based upon an actual shipment of specie to England is 110¼ per cent, which would be the price to a person paying gold. To get the price in currency that rate is multiplied by the premium on gold for the day; at a premium of 10 per cent for gold the price of the bill is 121.78; at 20 per cent 132,74, and at 50 per cent 165.93. The gold rate for francs is 5.10, which, being divided by the premium on gold, gives the price of francs in currency. At 170 for gold the rate is 3 francs per dollar; at 150 3.40 francs per dollar. A good deal of complication grows out of this use of paper in foreign accounts. Thus, a person in England owing say $1,000 in New York, would in ordinary times be drawn on for £206 12s., but now claims the advantage of the exchange, and demurs at paying more than £132 12s., exchange on London being 170. If this is not submitted to, he orders the amount paid here in greenbacks by a banker for his account. This is not the case however if £206 is due them. The "rate of exchange" is then entirely ignored, and nothing but sovereigns recognized. In this way the country loses in the aggregate a very large amount justly due it.

The effect of the paper inflation on prices of most articles of produce is apparent in the following figures, which show the rates for the same articles in Montreal, New York, and Richmond:

		New York.		*Richmond.*	
	Montreal.	*In paper.*	*In specie.*	*In paper.*	*In specie.*
Gold	Par.	$150	55 cts.	$500	20 cts.
Flour, super..bbls.	4.40 a 4.45	6.10 a 6.50	4.05 a 4.30	22.00 a 29.00	5.60 a 5 80
Flour, family	5.15 a 5.50	8.00 a 9.50	5.33 a 6 33	27.00 a 38.00	7.40 a 7 60
Corn.....bush.	55 a 57	88 a 90	59 a 60	4.62 a 4.75	92 a 95
Bacon .....lbs.	3½ a 5	8½ a 8¾	4½ a 5¼	1.20 a 1.25	22 a 25
Butter, fine.....	12½ a 13½	30 a 33	20 a 21	2.60 a 2.75	52 a 55
Coffee	15 a 17	31 a 33	20½ a 22	3.62 a 3.75	72 a 75
Sugar	5½ a 6½	8½ a 11	5½ a 7¾	1.05 a 1.10	21 a 22
Rice	.....	4½ a 5	3½ a 3¾	20 a 25	1 a 1¼
Potatoes.....bush.	50 a 60	1.50 a 2.00	1 00 a 1.30	8.00 a	1.60 a ..

The quotations from the Richmond paper, as compared with Montreal and New York, indicate the changed circumstances of trade as well as the influence of paper. The blockade of the Mississippi cut off a vast supply of produce from the Western States, that usually went into the South, and turned it upon the Eastern markets, glutting them to such a degree, that notwithstanding the most immense exports, grain, flour and corn are unusually low in New York, in fact, rather lower than in Montreal for specie. On the other hand, the price of flour in Richmond is also low for specie, notwithstanding the loss of the Western supplies. Rice is one-third the New York price, but bacon and butter are dear.

The imports of the month have been as follows compared with the corresponding period last year:

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

			Entered for		
	Specie.	Free goods.	Consumption.	Warehouse.	Total.
January.....	$101,906	$2,413,649	$8,741,227	$4,482,794	$15,739,676
February..	213,971	783.561	7,372,539	3,657,775	12,037,846
March.....	123,616	1,328,806	11,461,572	3,454,530	16,370,524
Total 3 months	$493,493	$4,526,016	$27,575,338	$8,887,188	$44,137,946
" 1862....	314,992	9,409,527	24,134,259	10,862,460	44,721,238

The aggregate of imports is nearly the same as last year, but the amount of free goods imported is much less, since the changed tariff has taxed many articles before free. The amount of duties collected for the month has however been less than for the same month last year. The average duties for March on dutiable goods has been $4,554,460 on $14,916,102, or 30 per cent. Last year the amount was $4,626,862 on $13,352,256, or 34.75 per cent. Thus it appears that the advanced duties has had the effect of diminishing the rate per cent, and the advance, including exchange and premium, has been very heavy. Thus the importers have paid in March:

Duties	$4,554,460
Gold premium, 54 per cent	2,459,408
Exchange advance, 54 per cent	8,054,695
Total	$15,068,563

This is rather more than 100 per cent on the imports, and out of the whole amount the government got but $4,554,460, leaving $10,514,103 advanced by the importers, and ultimately paid by the consumers, for which no one derives any benefit. This is at the rate of $126,000,000, or as much as the whole revenue tax is expected to give, but which does not benefit the Treasury one cent. Yet Mr. CHASE has the effrontery to claim that his paper is a "loan without interest."

The exports for the month have been as follows:

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
January	$4,624,574	$73,111	$668,275	$14,829,398	$19,695,351
February	3,965,664	43,889	610,009	17,780,586	22,400,148
March	6,385,442	213,685	758,266	16,137,689	23,695,082
Total 3 months	$15,175,680	$330,685	$2,036,550	$48,247,673	$65,790,581
" 1862	8,906,426	141,647	817,167	31,116,754	40,981,994

The amount of specie shipped was large, including the amount sent away under the first alarm caused by the action of the New York Legislature. The exports of produce for the month were also very considerable as measured in paper prices, but as measured in the currency, for which they will sell abroad, not much in excess of last year.

All business has been very much depressed by the terrible uncertainty which overhangs the future of the government finances. The Treasury is largely in arrears, and the utmost efforts have been made to induce the conversion of greenbacks into 5-20's. Inasmuch, however, as that the law, as it originally stood, allowing conversions into that stock free, and restricting its sale to market value, was altered at the urgent request of Mr. CHASE so as to leave out those provisions, for the express purpose of making private bargains with loyal capitalists, no one can tell at what rates the awards have been made.

The prices for stocks have been as follows:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	6 p. c. certif. 1 year.	Gold.	August demand notes
January 3,...	96¼	98	88¼	102¼	96¼	34¼ a 34⅝	29
" 10,...	97⅛	98	90	103	97	37½ a 38	35
" 17,...	91⅛	91⅛	88¼	101	95	49 a 46¼	43
" 24,...	95	96	90	102	96	47 a 48¼	44⅛
" 31,...	92¼	94	86	101¼	94	55 a 60⅛	53
February 7,...	92	93⅛	85¼	102	94	57¼ a 57½	55
" 14,...	94	96	87¼	102¼	96	53¼ a 53½	51
" 21,...	96¼	97⅛	91½	103½	95	53¼ a 64	62
" 28,...	100¼	102¼	97	105¼	98⅛	71 a 71¼	71
March 7,...	99⅛	100⅛	94⅛	105	98¼	52¼ a 53	53
" 14,...	104¼	104¼	98	106¼	100	54¼ a 54¼	53
" 21,...	103¼	104¼	96	107	100	54¼ a 54¼	..
" 28,...	104¼	105	96¼	106¼	100	41 a 41¼	..
April 4,...	104¼	105	97¼	104¼	99	53 a 53¼	..
" 11,...	104¼	105	97¼	105	100¼	46 a 52¼	..
" 18,...	104	105	96	105	101	53 a 53¼	..

Sundry rumors have been afloat during the month that the government had large offers from Europe for loans and would not take them. Some other rumors were traced to the most ridiculous sources, and whether any of them were true we cannot say. The confederates obtained a loan of $15,000,000, to be paid in cotton at a certain price, and the whole of the money was to remain in England; a transaction very different of course from a loan of money to be drawn for and spent at home, as would be the case with a loan for the Federal Government. The amount of money required to meet the appropriations for the next fiscal year is so immense that the utmost caution is requisite to maintain the highest credit of the government, which at one time was superior to that of any other in the world. It is the only one that ever paid its public debt in full, principle and interest, to the last dollar. Its ability to do so was much enhanced by the scrupulous manner in which the appropriation were granted; the responsibilities of the executive officer so fixed and sustained that the confidence of both people and creditors was never shaken. It is matter of regret that the 37th Congress saw fit to disregard that necessary and salutary rule. In placing the power to make limitless loans—for the amounts are so large as to be practically limitless—in the hands of an individual who may fix the prices for each operation privately, and not be required to report at all, they have alone given great power to an executive officer and incurred great national risk, but they have immensely jeopardized the national credit. We can only hope that the power thus given will be used wisely and judiciously.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE DIRECTOR OF THE MINT,

FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1862.*

THE coinage of the mint and branches for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1862, has been large, but not equal to that of the preceding year. Various causes contributed to this reduction; the principal one being the disturbed condition of our country, which not only affected the financial and commercial relations of the nation, but embarrassed and retarded operations in the mining districts, and limited the supply from these sources. The quantity of foreign coin and bullion deposited was not large, amounting only to $11,268,710 71.

The amount of bullion received at the mint and branches during the year was as follows: Gold, $67,118,544 56; silver, $4,098,673 14; total deposits, $71,217,217 70. From this total must be deducted the re-deposits of bullion, or bars, made at one institution and deposited at another, for coinage. This deduction made, the amount will be $45,423,231 01.

The coinage was as follows: Gold coins, $45,532,386 50; fine gold bars, $16,144,190 05; silver coins, $2,812,401 50; silver bars, $418,680 01; cent coins, $116,000; total coinage, $65,023,658 06; number of pieces of all denominations of coin, 28,296,899.

The distribution of the bullion received and coined at the mint and branches was as follows: At Philadelphia, gold deposits, $26,287,009 77; gold coined, $29,987,386 50; fine gold bars, $49,421 61; silver deposits and purchases, $1,855,606 96; silver coined, $2,170,701 50; silver bars, $1,797 79; cents coined, $116,000. Total deposits of gold and silver, $28,142,616 73; total coinage, $32,274,088; number of pieces, 25,951,899.

At the branch, San Francisco, the gold deposits were $16,136,622 96; gold coined, $15,545,000; silver deposits and purchases, $749,114 14; silver coined, $641,700; silver bars, $1,278 65. Total coinage of gold and silver, $16,187,978 65; number of pieces, 2,345,000.

The assay office in New York received during the year $24,694,911 83 in gold bullion and $1,493,952 04 in silver. Fine gold bars stamped at that office, 3,867; value, $16,094,768 44; silver bars, 2,164; value, $415,603 57. Total value of gold and silver bullion, $26,188,863 87.

No reports have been received from the branches at New Orleans, Dahlonega, or Charlotte.

Although New Orleans is now, and has been for some month, in the possession of the Union forces, yet the operations at the branch mint in that city have not been resumed, nor is it expedient or necessary that they should be. After the suppression of the rebellion, and the pacification of the country, the branch located there might again be successfully and usefully operated; till then it should remain closed. No consideration of public or private interest would, under the most favorable circumstances,

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* The annual report for the year ending June 30, 1861, with a history of the mint and coinage from 1792, will be found in vol. xlvi., page 247-264, of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

justify the reopening of the branches at Dahlonega or Charlotte. They ought not to have been established; and, having been the source of useless expenditure, they should not, even in the event of the States in which they are respectively located returning to their allegiance, be again employed for minting purposes.

Whether gold or silver coins were struck at any of the defected branches of the mint during the past year I have not been able to ascertain with certainty. If any, the amount was small. Prior to the defection of the branch at New Orleans, the dies in that institution were defaced or destroyed by some of the loyal employés, under the direction of one of the officers who remained true to his duty and to his country. This destruction of the dies must have delayed, if not altogether prevented, any coinage at that branch.

The mines of the United States continue to yield large amounts of the precious metals. Most of the gold and silver deposited at the mint and branches was the product of these mines. The sum of $30,976,593 24 in gold and $1,032,264 45 in silver was received from this source. As heretofore, much of the domestic silver was obtained by separating it from the gold deposits in which it is found. The mines of the Washoe region exhibit a gratifying increase in quantity. The gold mines of other portions of our country yield largely, and their capacity is almost unlimited. The deposits of gold from Colorado Territory or Pike's Peak have largely increased, and the daily developments of the mineral wealth of that region would seem to indicate that, before many years, the production from the mines there will rival in amount that of California.

The receipts from the State of Oregon during the year amounted to $888,205 against $3,181 last year—an increase full of encouragement to the miner.

The yield of gold and silver from Nevada, in the form of mixed bullion —one third of the value of which is in gold—has largely increased during the last nine months, and increased supplies of the precious metals from that region may be confidently expected.

Gold deposits from Washington Territory have also been received, and the indications of a large increase are favorable,

The deposits of gold and silver bullion at the mint and branches, during the year, from the mines of the United States, notwithstanding the disturbed condition of public affairs and the troubles on our western borders, were only $2,800,000 less than the amount of the preceding fiscal year. The decrease was in the amount received from California, and must be attributed to other causes than diminished yield of the mines of that State. The reports from the gold and silver regions of our country are highly satisfactory and promise an abundant and increasing yield.

The places whence the deposits of gold and silver were obtained, and the amount from each locality, are set forth in the tabular statements attached to this report.

The exchange of nickel for the old copper cents was continued during the year. The number of the old cents is rapidly diminishing, and that coin will soon disappear altogether from the circulation. The demand for the nickle cent has largely increased. The disappearance of the small silver coins from circulation has caused the new cent to be extensively used, and every effort has been made to meet the demand. Large amounts have been sent to every part of the country, and orders, beyond our abil-

ity to fill, are constantly forwarded to the mint. The profits of the cent coinage have been fully adequate to meet all expenses of material, production, and transmission to the parties ordering them.

The coinage of the past was of a more general character than that of the preceding year. A greater variety of all the gold and silver coins was produced, and among them an unusual number of the smaller gold coins.

The distinct and unequivocal recognition of the divine sovereignty in the practical administration of our political system is a duty of the highest obligation. History unites with divine revelation in declaring that "happy is that people whose God is the Lord." In the exercise of political sovereignty our nation should honor Him; and now, in this hour of peril and danger to our country and liberties, it is becoming to acknowledge His power and invoke His protection. Our national coinage in its devices and legends should indicate the Christian character of our nation, and declare our trust in God. It does not do this. On the contrary, ancient mythology, more than Christianity, has stamped its impress on our coin. It is, however, gratifying to know that the proposition to introduce a motto upon our coins, expressing a national reliance on divine support has been favorably considered by your deparment, and will no doubt be approved by an intelligent public sentiment. The subject is under the control of Congress; and without a change in existing laws, no alteration in the legends and devices of most of our national coins can be made; a motto, however, may be added without additional authority or violation of the present law.

The 13th section of the act of January 18, 1837, prescribes the following devices and legends for our coinage: "Upon one side of the said coins there shall be an impression emblematic of liberty, with an inscription of the word *Liberty*, and the year of the coinage; and upon the reverse of each of the gold and silver coins there shall be the figure or representation of an eagle, with the inscription *United States of America*, and a designation of the value of the coin, but on the reverse of the dime and half dime the figure of the eagle shall be omitted." The provisions of this act being still in force, except as to the silver coins of less denomination than the dollar, the *character* of the devices upon the coins referred to in the section cited, viz: the eagle, half eagle, quarter eagle and silver dollar cannot be altered unless authority therefor be given by an act of Congress. The same remark applies to the double eagle. The coins not included in the provisions of the act referred to are the three dollar piece, gold dollar, and silver coins of less denomination than the dollar, also the cent coin. The figure of the eagle is omitted on the reverse of the gold dollar, and the device thereon, as well as for the obverse and reverse of the three dollar piece and silver coins last referred to, having been fixed by the Secretary of the Treasury, may be altered by the same authority.

In consideration of the legal provisions referred to, it will be necessary, in attempting to introduce a motto on the face of our coins, to interfere as little as possible with the present legal devices. The first difficulty to be encountered is the necessary condensation. The idea should be unmistakably expressed in our own language, and at the same time the letters should be distinctly and easily legible. To unite these desiderata within the limits presented on the face of the coin, in connection with the required arrange-

ment of the legal devices, demands much reflection. The motto "In God is our trust," which has become familiar to the public mind by its use in our national hymn the "Star Spangled Banner," would be an appropriate one, but it contains too many letters to insert in the place of the *crest*, without crowding too much for good taste. For greater brevity we may substitute the words, "God our trust," which conveys the same idea, in a form of expression according with heraldic usage, and as readily understood as the more explicit form of the other. The most appropriate place for this motto is found in connection with the national inscription, which on all our larger coins is on the reverse, the device of which is an eagle, with the heraldic accompaniments appropriate to the *arms* of the Union as adopted by law, dispensing at present with the motto (E Pluribus Unum) and the *crest*, except on the double eagle. The place of the *crest* offers the best positon for inscribing a motto, as on all the other coins which are large enough to admit of such an addition this space is now vacant, and therefore a motto, if sufficiently brief, may be introduced with the least disturbance of the device as now arranged. The adoption on our coin of the motto "God our trust," or some other words expressive of national reliance on divine support, would accord fully with the sentiment of the American people, and it would add to the artistic appearance of the coins.

I would again call the attention of the department to the anomalous character of the silver dollar of the United States, and respectfully refer to the observations on this subject contained in my last annual report, also to the propriety and expediency of enlarging the limit of the legal tender for silver. The limit, with great propriety and advantage to public and private interests, might and ought to be extended to fifty or one hundred dollars.

PRICE OF SILVER AND GOLD.

There is some reason, from present experience, to fear a continuous advance of gold and silver, as compared with the legal tender currency issued by the government. That fear may be much abated by considering the amazing production of the gold fields of the world, to which there has been no parallel in past history. It is very much to the purpose to consider that at the era of the great Napoleonic war the supply of precious metals was chiefly maintained by the mines of Mexico and South America, the washings of the gold coast of Africa, and some initial developments in Russia, altogether not exceeding $25,000,000, by a literal estimate annually for a series of years. During the most critical part of this era the premium on gold in England reached forty-one per cent, as against Bank of England notes, but was generally much less; and in three years, from 1813 to 1816, fell from the highest point to par with bank paper. Since those times it is almost unnecessary to say the stock of gold has been immensely re-enforced; and we have now the gold fields of California and adjacent territories, Colorado or Pike's Peak, Australia, New Zealand, Russia, Nova Scotia, and the very promising silver regions of Washoe and Arizona. Adding together all the sources of supply, both gold and silver, we may safely estimate an annual yield in these times, of $175,000,000, or seven times the amount produced annually for some years prior to the peace of 1815.

There is, therefore, much reason to hope that the price of gold and silver, as compared with actual currency, cannot go on rising indefinitely and ruinously, and that the return of peace will bring a returning tendency to specie

payments. The civilized world does not want a mere metallic currency, but it must have a sufficient metallic support for its bills of credit, and it is easy to see that only five years addition of gold and silver from the mines will exert a vast influence. Once out of the ground and put in available shape, they are, setting off the mere abrasion of coins, a perpetual addition to the machinery of trade and the wealth of the world.

ABRASION OF COINS.

Very remarkable statements have from time to time been published as to loss by abrasion or wear of coins, making the amount so great as almost to cast discredit upon metallic currency. Thus we are told by one writer that the annual loss, in a country where both gold and silver circulate, is one part in 420; by another, one in 300; by a third, one in 200; and one "gentleman of great accuracy and acuteness" (cited by JACOBS) says that the loss on coined silver is full one per cent per annum. A more recent and alarming estimate, from British sources, would lead to the expectation that silver pieces of the size of their shilling, or our quarter dollar, would in less than ten years be worn so much as to be no longer passable. Every one knows the value of such statements on this side of the water.

We have recently had occasion to make a thorough re-examination of this important subject, and have ascertained what is the average annual loss on each size of gold coin, and on the silver promiscuously. Not to enter into details here, it may be stated that the silver coin averages a loss of one part in 630; the half eagle one in 3,550; the double eagle one in 9,000; and that, by a cautious estimate as to the proportions of the various sizes of coin actually among us, the average annual loss by abrasion does not exceed one part in 2,400; that is, in times when specie is current at par with bank paper, and not lying idle. Let it be observed that all experiments hitherto made, in regard to abrasion, seems to have been based upon pieces not higher in value than the sovereign or half eagle. This has rendered expedient a new examination, because the great preponderance of our specie is in large pieces, which, being less exposed by circulation, must be judged by a law of their own. While one double eagle is lying quiet, five or ten smaller pieces are passing from hand to hand.

SMALL CHANGE.

In regard to our minor currency, usually called "small change," it is difficult to realize the fact that, with over forty-five millions of dollars in silver coin now in the country, we should be driven to a substitute, which, however useful as a temporary measure, cannot enter into comparison, in point of convenience and durability, with small coin, not to speak of intrinsic value. Why cannot silver change be issued on a basis somewhat similar, yet more favorable than that on which the copper coin is issued, namely, not to give a full bullion value, but to afford a public benefit? The cent we issue costs the government scarcely half a cent; but for its purposes, and with the stamp of authority, it is worth its nominal value to everybody: it is largely sought after, notwithstanding so many have been issued, and would purchase no more if it were three times as heavy. Would the half dime, dime, or quarter dollar be any less acceptable if it were, say three-fourths of the present weight of those coins? At all events, we could most

safely and seasonably issue $10,000,000 in five and ten cent pieces, of the present nineteenth fineness, but of reduced weight, and of legal tender to the amount of five or ten dollars. The new pieces would, of course, be not worth that much abroad, but they would be at home, which is all we are concerned about. A legal provision to this effect, prospective perhaps, to follow the wearing out of the stamp currency, would at once bring to the mint a supply of the old coin, and of silver bullion from the Washoe mines and other sources, by holders desirous of realizing a premium and of accommodating their own business. So much of the gain as would be necessary to draw the material should go in that direction; the remainder would pay expenses of recoinage and transportation. The three-cent pieces already out, and considerably coined, might be left to fulfil their mission, without calling them in or adding to their number, the cents being sufficient to fill the space between one cent and five. It would be best at present to limit the new issue to the dime and half dime, leaving the larger coins for future consideration, or, probably, to return to their par value on the return of better times.

STATEMENT OF FOREIGN COINS.

The additions to foreign coins are few, but there are alterations in the silver occasioned by the raising of the mint price. In gold, we find the sovereign of the mint of Sydney, Australia, by the trial of a much larger lot than has been hitherto procurable, a little higher in average weight, and a little lower in average fineness, than reported last year. It may be well to state here that an inquiry has been raised in England as to the propriety of making Australian coin pass everywhere concurrently with the British sovereign, being, in fact, of equal value, though quite different in devices and in color. We have not seen the printed documents on this subject, but as the coinage of the Sydney mint is large, it is worth while to bring the matter to public notice.

There are also several varieties of private coinage at Pike's Peak, Colorado Territory, which, not being foreign nor legal, cannot claim a place in our coinage statistics; and yet, being issued in considerable amounts, and current in the far West, ought to receive attention. They are all of a pale color, and more highly alloyed than our lawful coinage, making up in some cases by increase of weight. Thus we have the ten-dollar piece of CLARK, GRABER & Co., ranging from 768 to 832 thousandths fine, and of course, as various in weight; but they all appear to be about ten dollars in value, (a few cents more or less,) by computing the value of the silver contained and charging for the parting. The ten-dollar piece of J. J. CONWAY & Co. is only 630 thousandths fine, by a single trial, being largely alloyed with the silver actually present. The net value of gold and silver is $7 25. The five-dollar piece of JNO. PARSON & Co., by a single trial, is 751 thousandths fine, and its net value $4 20. The trials in these latter cases are not sufficient for a fair average valuation, but they will give an idea as to the deficiency.

In silver we have added, from a recent assay, the Maria Theresa thaler of Austria, which is coined specially for the Levant trade, but always bears the date of 1780, no matter when struck. We have lately had a good opportunity to make an average of old and new pieces, many being of the latter sort. They fully maintain their original standards, and are, in fact, a little better than we reported them twenty years ago.

In January of the present year the mint price of silver was raised from 121 to 122¼ cents per ounce troy, of standard fineness. This requires an entire change in the column of values of silver coins, and the change has accordingly been made.

NATIONAL MEDALS.

The medal department of the mint has become a most important and interesting part of the institution. The reproduction of national and other American medals of historic interest has been received with great favor by all who are interested in numismatics, and by all who desire the development of native genius and skill in this branch of the arts. Medals of honor for the navy, in recognition of noble and patriotic services in defence of the nation's honor and life, have been prepared here, which reflect the highest credit on the artists and workmen engaged in their preparation.

Rare and valuable coins and medals have been added to the mint cabinet during the year. The cabinet has become a very attractive place, and the daily crowds of intelligent visitors attest its value and importance as a numismatic collection.

DEPOSITS AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, THE BRANCH MINT AT SAN FRANCISCO, AND ASSAY OFFICE, NEW YORK, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1862.

Description of bullion.	Philadelphia.	San Francisco.	New York.	Total.
Fine bars.....	$23,172,885 33	.....	....	$24,172,885 33
United States bullion	1,435,890 45	$15,754,262 96	$13,786,439 93	30,9 6,593 24
United States coin..	386,302 24	.....	4,836 00	391,138 24
Jewellers' bars.....	75,973 04	.....	233,244 00	309,217 04
Foreign coin.....	199,846 38	48,400 00	9,685,280 00	9,933,526 38
Foreign bullion.....	16,112 33	333,960 00	985,112 00	1,335,184 33
Total gold.....	$26,287,009 77	$16,136,622 96	$24,694,911 33	$67,118,544 56
Fine bars.....	$1,620,143 36	.....	$958 00	$1,621,101 36
Jewellers' bars.....	37,202 19	.....	62,055 00	99,257 19
United States bullion	38,334 31	749,114 14	244,816 00	1,032,264 45
United States coin..	75,804 18	.....	33,604 00	109,408 18
Foreign coin.....	77,283 05	.....	972,019 94	1,049,302 09
Foreign bullion	6,839 87	.....	180,500 00	187,339 87
Total silver.....	$1,855,606 96	$749,114 14	$1,493,952 04	$4,098,673 14
Total gold and silver	$28,142,616 73	$16,885,737 10	$26,188,863 37	$71,217,217 70
Less redeposits at the different institutions:				
Gold.....			$24,172,885 33	
Silver			1,621,101 36	
				25,793,986 69
				$45,423,231 01

VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCE, AND MANUFACTURE OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEARS ENDING JUNE 30, 1861, AND JUNE 30, 1862.

We have been favored by the Treasury Department with the official returns for the year ending June 30, 1862, of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, and have prepared the following table comparing the returns the last year with those of the previous one:

PRODUCT OF THE SEA.

Fisheries—	1861.	1862.
Oil, spermaceti	$2,110,823	$962,603
Oil, whale and other fish	581,264	1,286,329
Whalebone	736,552	556,795
Spermaceti and sperm candles	143,907	64,481
Fish, dried or smoked	634,941	714,582
Fish, pickled	244,028	328,687
Total product of the sea	$4,451,515	$3,913,477

PRODUCT OF THE FOREST.

Wood—		
Staves and headings	$1,959,392	$2,590,649
Shingles	108,610	67,356
Boards, plank, and scantling	2,092,949	2,085,982
Hewn timber	97,875	138,521
Other lumber	441,979	1,178,753
Oak bark and other dye	189,476	186,363
All manufactures of	2,344,079	1,753,259
Naval stores—		
Tar and pitch	143,280	55,884
Rosin and turpentine	1,060,257	293,400
Ashes, pot and pearl	651,547	451,047
Ginseng	292,899	408,590
Skins and furs	878,466	794,407
Total product of the forest	$10,260,809	$9,934,211

PRODUCT OF AGRICULTURE.

Of animals—		
Beef	$1,675,773	$2,017,077
Tallow	2,942,370	4,026,113
Hides	673,818	578,687
Horned cattle	223,246	193,019

	1861.	1862.
Butter	$2,355,985	$4,114,057
Cheese	3,321,631	2,712,899
Pork, pickled	2,609,818	3,980,003
Hams and bacon	4,848,339	10,290,572
Lard	5,729,297	10,004,521
Wool	237,846	296,225
Hogs	3,267	23,562
Horses	193,420	157,442
Mules	191,873	212,187
Sheep	28,417	34,600
Total	$24,035,100	$38,580,964
Vegetable food—		
Wheat	$38,313,624	$42,568,790
Flour	24,645,849	27,513,196
Indian corn	6,890,865	10,387,651
Indian meal	692,003	778,076
Rye meal	55,761	54,488
Rye, oats, & other small grain & pulse	1,124,556	2,364,625
Biscuit or ship-bread	429,708	490,942
Potatoes	285,508	800,599
Apples	269,363	219,528
Onions	102,578	90,412
Rice	1,382,178	156,899
Total	$74,191,993	$84,925,206
Cotton	$34,051,483	$1,180,113
Tobacco	13,784,710	12,325,356
Hemp	8,608	8,300
Other agricultural products—		
Clover seed	1,063,141	295,255
Flaxseed	49,609	59
Brown sugar	301,329	90,022
Hops	2,006,053	661,308
Total	$51,264,943	$15,590,413
Total product of agriculture	$149,492,026	$138,066,583
MANUFACTURES.		
Refined sugar	$287,881	$147,397
Wax	94,495	47,383
Chocolate	2,157	4,288
Spirits from grain	867,954	328,414
Spirits from molasses	850,546	715,702
Spirits from other materials	593,185	1,577,861
Molasses	39,138	21,914
Vinegar	38,262	29,700
Beer, ale, porter, and cider, (in casks)	25,876	45,464
Beer, ale, porter, and cider, (in bottles)	13,604	9,232

	1861.	1862.
Linseed oil	$27,982	$20,928
Spirits of turpentine	1,192,787	54,731
Household furniture	838,049	939,168
Carriages and parts, and railroad cars and parts	472,080	517,175
Hats of fur or silk	106,512	77,261
Hats of palm leaf	50,444	55,446
Saddlery	61,469	67,759
Trunks and valises	40,622	50,771
Adamantine and other candles	683,048	836,849
Soap	455,648	636,049
Snuff	17,703	7,914
Tobacco, manufactured	2,742,828	1,068,080
Gunpowder	347,103	101,803
Leather	555,202	389,037
Leather, boots and shoes	779,876	721,206
Cables and cordage	255,274	199,669
Salt	144,046	228,109
Lead	6,241	7,334
Iron—		
Pig	25,826	38,412
Bar	15,411	45,584
Nails	270,084	175,856
Castings of	76,750	54,761
All manufactures of iron	5,536,576	4,212,448
Copper and brass, and manufactures of	2,375,029	1,088,021
Drugs and medicines	1,149,433	1,490,376
Cotton piece goods—		
Printed or colored	2,215,032	587,500
White, other than duck	1,076,959	508,004
Duck	300,668	221,685
All manufactures of	4,364,379	1,629,275
Hemp—		
Thread	80	253
Bags	406	2,106
Cloth	.....	1,440
Other manufactures of hemp	39,084	28,441
Wearing apparel	462,554	472,924
Earthen and stone ware	40,524	31,158
Combs	28,960	12,994
Buttons	3,832	1,227
Brooms and brushes of all kinds	62,360	99,166
Billiard tables and apparatus	8,910	19,884
Umbrellas, parasols, and sunshades	1,271	553
Morocco and other leather not sold by the pound	7,507	13,049
Fire-engines	7,940	34,930
Printing presses and type	106,562	168,647
Musical instruments	150,974	147,826
Books and maps	250,365	214,231
Paper and stationery	347,915	398,546

	1861.	1862.
Paints and varnish	$240,923	$259,064
Jewelry, real and imitation	48,740	67,750
Other manufactures of gold and silver, and gold leaf	53,372	63,078
Glass	349,731	522,606
Tin	30,229	62,286
Pewter and lead	30,534	31,366
Marble and stone	185,267	190,067
Bricks, lime, and cement	93,292	83,385
India-rubber shoes	33,603	35,903
India-rubber, other than shoes	160,088	107,953
Lard oil	81,783	148,026
Oil cake	1,386,691	875,841
Artificial flowers	1,459	130
Coal	577,386	837,117
Ice	172,263	182,667
Gold and silver coin	10,488,590	17,776,912
Gold and silver bullion	13,311,280	13,267,739
Quicksilver	631,450	1,237,643
Articles not enumerated—		
Manufactured	2,530,689	2,880,347
Raw produce	2,794,046	1,770,916
Grand total	$227,966,169	$212,920,639

ROCK OIL—VALUE OF FLOWING WELLS.

The Oil City *Register* says that those who are lucky enough to strike a flowing well secure, at comparatively a small cost, a very comfortable income. The man who owns a fifty-barrel well, at the present price of two dollars per barrel at the wells, has a daily receipt of one hundred dollars. This, too, with but little labor, as the liquid wealth flows into his tanks as water from the ground. But it is not every one who is so fortunate. Many exhaust their means in boring for oil, and in lieu of oil or money, have, as security for their investment, a four inch hole, some four or five hundred feet deep, and obtain water instead of petroleum. But we notice that the most successful operators here are those who exhibit the greatest amount of energy and enterprise in obtaining and taking care of their oil.

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, ETC., FROM CANADA.

The exports of flour and grain from Canada, according to the trade and navigation returns for 1862, were as follows:

	Quantity.	Value.
Flour.....bbls.	242,140	$1,102,376
Wheat.....bush.	5,741,479	5,515,280
Barley	2,147,977	1,534,957
Peas	1,093,169	735,927
Oats	1,905,980	647,688

The total amount in bushels is 23,098,705, valued at $9,336,228.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CITY BANK RETURNS—THE BANK ACT PASSED BY THE N. Y. LEGISLATURE.

THE returns of the banks of the cities of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia all show a large decrease in loans and discounts the past two months, and since the coming in of the new year their circulation has decreased about five millions, as will be seen by the following:

DECREASE IN LOANS.

	New York.	Boston.	Philadelphia.
March loans.....	$181,098,322	$79,636,134	$39,458,384
April 18, loans.....	169,132,822	73,459,160	36,295,644
Decrease in loans.	$11,955,500	$6,176,974	$3,162,740
Showing a total decrease in loans and discounts of....			$21,295,214

DECREASE IN CIRCULATION.

	New York.	Boston.	Philadelphia.
January 3, circulation.	$9,754,355	$8,190,496	$4,504,115
April 25 "	7,555,549	7,040,000	3,078,921
Decrease.....	$2,198,806	$1,150,496	$1,425,194
Showing a total decrease in circulation of.....			$4,774,496

This drawing in by the banks of their circulation will be found, we think, to have been quite general throughout the country. It has probably arisen from the fear that our courts would decide against the legal tender notes, and they be compelled therefore to redeem their bills in specie. We understand, however, that a case has been submitted to the Court of Appeals of New York State which will be decided in June, involving the question, and that there is every reason to believe the court will hold that the act making the United States currency a legal tender for all debts, etc., is constitutional and valid. If such should be their decision, we may look for greatly increased circulation by the banks throughout the country after June.

The following is the bank bill passed by the New York Legislature. It has not yet received the Governor's sanction, but probably will:

AN ACT TO AMEND THE BANKING LAWS OF THIS STATE.

SECTION 1. From and after the passage of this act, the securities hereafter to be deposited with the Superintendent of the Banking Department for notes for circulation to be issued to any corporation or joint stock association for banking purposes, or individual banker, shall be stocks of this State and of the United States in the following proportions, that is to say, not to exceed two-thirds per centum in United States stocks, and not less

than one-third per centum in stocks of this State; both stocks to be equal to or be made equal to stocks yielding interest at the rate of six per cent per annum, and the securities now held by the Bank Department, so far as the same consist of United States stocks and stocks of this State, may be adjusted on the application of any party concerned, so as to be in accordance with the provisions of this section.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

Below will be found our usual bank returns for the cities of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia:

CITY WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1862, $69,493,577.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 3,.....	$172,810,009	$35,954,550	$9,754,355	$159,163,246	$186,861,762
" 10,.....	175,816,010	36,770,746	9,551,563	162,878,249	249,796,489
" 17,.....	176,606,558	37,581,465	9,241,670	164,666,003	314,471,457
" 24,.....	179,288,266	38,549,794	9,083,419	168,269,228	298,861,866
February 7,.....	179,892,161	38,243,839	8,780,154	166,342,777	302,352,571
" 14,.....	173,103,592	38,426,460	8,756,217	167,720,880	265,139,104
" 21,.....	178,335,880	37,981,310	8,752,536	170,103,758	291,242,929
" 28,.....	179,958,842	39,512,256	8,739,969	173,912,695	340,574,444
March 7,.....	181,098,322	39,705,089	8,698,175	174,689,212	344,484,442
" 14,.....	177,875,949	36,110,085	8,657,016	172,944,034	307,370,817
" 21,.....	173,829,479	33,955,122	8,609,723	167,004,166	277,331,351
" 28,.....	172,448,526	34,317,691	8,560,602	168,363,846	281,326,258
April 4,.....	173,038,019	34,257,121	8,348,094	160,216,418	287,347,704
" 11,.....	170,845,283	35,406,145	8,178,091	159,894,731	264,468,080
" 18,.....	169,182,622	36,761,696	8,039,558	164,122,146	259,417,565
" 25,.....	171,079,822	37,175,067	7,555,549	167,863,999	258,654,781

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $————; *Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,..	$77,339,046	$7,672,028	$8,190,496	$33,372,648	.....	....
" 12,..	77,427,000	7,751,000	8,373,000	33,068,800	17,006,000	13,520,000
" 19,..	76,624,700	7,710,600	8,199,600	33,362,000	16,547,800	13,727,700
" 26...	76,354,000	7,710,700	8,008,500	33,847,000	16,811,700	13,958,000
Feb. 2,..	76,496,800	7,685,000	8,865,000	34,076,800	16,889,000	14,490,000
" 9,..	78,421,000	7,707,000	8,074,000	35,178,600	16,932,000	14,183,000
" 16,..	78,481,000	7,794,000	8,001,000	34,903,000	17,070,700	14,095,500
" 23,..	78,782,600	7,624,000	8,002,000	34,965,500	17,331,000	14,583,800
Mar. 2,..	79,127,500	7,553,000	8,001,980	35,245,500	17,523,500	15,004,000
" 9,..	79,274,700	7,582,000	8,225,000	35,215,000	17,340,400	14,446,500
" 16,..	79,636,134	7,609,238	7,780,062	32,955,149	17,230,800	13,434,500
" 30,..	77,935,000	7,572,600	7,593,800	31,604,500	17,074,400	11,601,800
April 6,..	76,938,600	7,703,800	7,963,500	32,687,080	15,444,000	12,280,600
" 13,..	74,551,013	7,812,895	7,762,915	32,494,822	14,557,000	12,947,800
" 20,..	73,459,160	7,799,315	7,278,506	33,209,742	14,132,000	12,653,000
" 27,..	73,558,000	7,838,800	7,040,000	32,781,500	13,808,000	11,966,700

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970 130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,...	$37,679,675	$4,510,750	$4,504,115	$28,429,189	$6,948,785	$1,994,926
" 12,...	37,533,757	4,544,786	4,450,676	28,018,792	6,890,963	1,842,932
" 19,...	37,416,694	4,549,369	4,382.520	27,877,069	7,050,847	2,275,965
" 26,...	37,479,712	4,572,419	4,284,947	28,773,517	6,755,980	2,638,985
Feb 2,...	37,268,894	4,562,580	4,181,503	29,231,753	6,698,210	2,909,857
" 9,...	37,336,867	4,319,706	4,039,918	28,062,164	6,953,215	2,518,036
" 16,...	37,710,851	4,272,347	3,888,185	28.759,049	7,452,563	2,432,073
" 23,...	37,720,460	4,276,761	3,772,781	29,342,596	7,413,249	2,703,196
Mar. 2,...	37,901,080	4,267,626	3,696,097	30,178,518	7,185,670	2,758,852
" 9,...	38.603,871	4,249,035	3,608,870	30,679,259	7,100,258	2.499,139
" 16,...	39,260,028	4,247,817	3,534,880	30,549.587	7,476,603	1,939,449
" 23,...	39,458,384	4,247,688	3.295,862	30,106,135	7,418,482	1,935,014
" 30,...	38,937,612	4,311,704	3,369,194	29,171,283	6,501,758	2,158,007
Apr. 6,...	37,516,520	4,339,252	3,374,417	29,581,559	5,768,558	2,770,129
" 13,...	36,250,402	4,343,242	3,296,685	30,117,527	5,953,309	3,014,229
" 20,...	36,295,644	4,348 988	3,185,042	31,059,644	5,306,809	3,018,727
" 27,...	36,482,058	4,346,377	3,078,921	31,021,799	5,448,124	2,559,868

BANK OF ENGLAND.

During the past month the Bank of France has reduced its rate of discount from 4½ to 4 per cent, but the Bank of England has not made any further reduction. The bank rate, therefore, is now the same in both cities. For the four weeks there have been no material changes in the returns of the Bank of England. The following comparative table will be found of interest, affording, as it does, a view of the bank returns, the bank rate of discount, and the price of wheat in London during a period of three years corresponding with the date of our last returns, April 8:

At corresponding dates with the week ending April 8, 1863.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Circulation, including bank post bills...	£20,811,495	£21,822,105	£21,279,339
Public deposits.....	4,902.527	5,625,314	6,714,109
Other deposits.....	13,201,791	16,386,169	14,829,832
Government securities	10,222,938	11,160,755	11,129,445
Other securities.....	18,816,006	18,724,938	19,720,339
Reserve of notes and coin	7,439,092	10,883.600	8,912,745
Coin and bullion.	13,122,432	16,881,940	14,963,835
Bank rate of discount.....	5 per cent.	2½ p. cent.	4 per cent.
Average price of wheat...	56s. 4d.	58s. 5d.	45s. 9d.

Subjoined is our usual table with the returns brought down to April 8th, 1863:

WEEKLY STATEMENT.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 17...	£19,932,360	£8,507,144	£14,033,994	£30,539,363	£15,031,658	3 pr. ct.
" 24...	20,150,398	8,654,499	14,306,497	31,346.731	14,870,795	3 "
" 31...	20,516,435	8,338,717	15,469,254	32,488,020	14,956,421	3 "
Jan. 7...	20,927,993	8,782,808	14,393,308	32,620,233	14,685,555	3 "
" 14...	21,018,849	4,280,730	16,772,782	31,165,075	14,102,169	4 "
" 21...	20.893,931	4,965.798	14,993,225	30,227,066	13,855,849	4 "
" 28...	20,771,236	5,416,863	14,414,763	30,238,865	13,611,823	5 "
Feb. 4...	20,709,154	6,351,617	13.352,287	29,997,233	13,692,136	5 "
" 11...	20,444,454	6,952,808	13,596,356	30,288,406	14,070,651	5 "
" 18...	19,916,496	7,413,275	13,769,276	29,890,503	14,589,222	4 "

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Feb. 25...	19,715,828	7,901,658	13,867,153	29,709,079	14,614,096	4 "
Mar. 4...	20,822,055	8,036,003	13,368,086	30,880,805	14,504,517	4 "
" 11...	19,801,665	8,673,899	13,282,605	31,096,327	14,828,178	4 "
" 17...	20,012,331	9,343,499	13,003,088	31,482,170	14,547,812	4 "
" 24...	20,136,276	10,364,471	12,742,282	31,896,338	15,025,274	4 "
Apr. 1...	20,965,228	10,107,041	13,172,090	32,775,752	15,141,755	4 "
" 8...	21,279,339	6,714,109	14,829,832	30,946,784	14,963,835	4 "

INSTRUCTIONS AND REGULATIONS OF THE COMMISSIONER OF INTERNAL REVENUE AS TO THE INCOME TAX.

EVERY ONE TO BE ASSESSED ON THE 1ST OF MAY.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue has issued the following regulations for the assessment of the income tax:

The assessor and assistant assessors of each collection district will assess the income tax, on the first day of May next, upon every person residing within the district liable thereto. Each person will be required to return his total income, so far specifying the sources from which it is derived as to enable the assistant assessor to decide what deductions shall be made therefrom. Persons whose income does not exceed the sum of $1,000, and who reside in the United States, will be subject to a duty of 3 per cent on such portion thereof as is liable to taxation; provided, however, that upon the income derived from interest upon notes, bonds, or other securities of the United States, a duty of 1½ per cent will be levied. Persons whose incomes exceed $10,000 will be subject to a duty of 5 per cent on the portion thereof subject to taxation, provided, however, that upon the income derived from interest upon the notes, bonds, or other securities of the United States, a duty of 1½ per cent will be levied. Citizens of the United States residing abroad, and not in the employment of the government of the United States, will be subject to a duty of 5 per cent on the income of any property, securities, or stocks owned in the United States and not exempted from the income tax; provided, however, that upon the income derived from the interest upon notes, bonds, or other securities of the United States a duty of 1½ per cent will be levied. Every farmer or planter will be required to make return of the value of the produce of his farm or plantation without deduction for the labor or services of himself and his family, or for any portion of such produce consumed by himself and family. The following deductions will be made from the aggregate income of each person, and the tax assessed upon the remainder, viz.: State and local taxes assessed in the calendar year preceding this assessment, to wit: From January 1st, 1862, to December 1st, 1862, inclusive; salaries of officers or payments to persons in the service or employment of the United States, from which a deduction of 3 per cent has been made by the disbursing officers of the government; interest or dividends of stock, capital, or deposits in any bank, trust company or savings institutions, insurance, bridges, express, steamboat, ferryboat, railroad company, or corporation, from which interest or dividends a duty of three per cent shall have been deducted by the officers of such companies, corporations, or associations. Interest from any bonds or other evidences of indebtedness of any railroad company or other

corporation, from which a duty of three per cent shall have been deducted by the officers of such company or corporation, and receipts derived from advertisements, on which a duty shall have been assessed and paid; also the sum of $600, except in those cases where the whole or any part of said $600 shall have been deducted from the salaries or pay of officers or persons in the service or employment of the United States; the amount actually paid for the rent of every dwelling house or estate which is the residence of the person assessed; and the amount paid by any farmer or planter for hired labor and necessary repairs upon his farm or plantation, including the subsistence of the laborers.

Whenever the total income of any person exceeds $10,000, and deductions are made therefrom upon the ground that a portion of such income has been subject to a three per cent duty upon dividends or interest paid by companies, corporations, or associations, as before enumerated, such person will be subject to a tax of two per cent additional upon so much of his income as may have been previously subjected to a duty of three per cent by the officers of the company, corporation, or association above named. Guardians and trustees, whether such trustees are so by virtue of their office as executors, administrators, or other judiciary capacity, are required to make a return of the income belonging to minors or other persons which may be held in trust as aforesaid, and the income tax will be assessed upon the amount returned after deducting such sums as are exempted from the income taxes aforesaid, provided that the exemption of $600 under section 90 of the Excise Law shall not be allowed on account of any minor or other beneficiary of a trust, except upon the statement of the guardian or trustee, made under oath, that the minor or beneficiary has no other income from which said amount of $600 may be exempted and deducted. Whenever persons liable to assessment of income tax shall neglect or refuse to make the lists required by law, or when the lists made and tendered by such persons shall not be accepted by the assessors or assistant assessors be just and proper, it shall be the duty of each assessor or assistant assessor to make lists for such persons, according to the best information he can obtain. Persons so assessed may take oath or affirmation as to the amount of income and deduction therefrom, agreeably to section 93.

Persons receiving rent may deduct therefrom the amount paid for necessary repairs, insurance, and interest on incumbrance upon such rented property. The cost of new structures or improvements to buildings shall not be deducted from the income. The tax must be levied upon all dividends declared prior to September 1, 1862, and upon $600 of all salaries of officers or payments to persons in the civil, military, naval, or other service of the United States, for services rendered prior to the said date, as such dividends and proportions of salaries were not subject to deduction or assessment. Interest received from or due by trust companies, savings institutions, insurance, bridge, express, steamboat, ferryboat, and railroad companies, corporations or associations, prior to the same date, must also be taxed. Interest paid by him on incumbrances upon the dwelling house or estate upon which the assessed person resides may be deducted from income; also his payments for necessary repairs. Farm produce which the producer has on hand on the 31st day of December, 1862, must be appraised at its marketable value on that day. The income tax shall be included in the annual list, and appeals and other proceedings held as provided by law.

TREASURY SEVEN AND THREE-TENTH NOTES NOT A BASIS FOR BANKING.

The following decision in relation to the the United States 7.30 per cent notes is of interest:

Treasury Department, Washington, April 8, 1863.

SIR: Your letter of the 1st instant is received.

The three-year 7.30 bonds I do not consider as securities contemplated by the act to authorize a national currency, to be deposited for circulation, until they are converted into bonds of 1881, which may be done at any time. S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

J. THOMPSON, Esq., *New York.*

Under this decision the following list includes the stocks that are receivable as security for the national currency:

$9,415,250 sixes of 1867, interest payable January and July.
$8,908,341 sixes of 1868, interest payable January and July.
$7,022,000 fives of 1881, interest payable January and July.
$20,000,000 fives of 1874, interest payable January and July.
$68,417,000 sixes of 1881, interest payable January and July.
Any amount of 5.20 sixes, interest payable May and November.

DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES, APRIL 1, 1863.

We published last month the following official statement of the public debt of the United States up to April 1st, 1863:

	Interest per annum.	Amount.
7-30 convertibles, interest 6 per cent, due in 1881	6.10-100	$139,996,950 00
6 per cent debt	6.10	92,625,905 91
5 per cent debt	5.00	30,483,000 00
Certificates	5.60	273,880,176 20
United States notes	....	345,553,500 00
Requisitions	....	46,646,615 61
Aggregate		$929,186,147 72

Our purpose, in repeating it, is to give the items of the first four totals, (amounting in all to $295,068,255 91,) that the figures may be understood. The items in question are made up as follows:

Three years' (7-30s) bonds	$139,998,000 00
United States 6s of 1867	9,415,250 00
" " 1868	8,908,341 80
United States 5s of 1874	20,000,000 00
" " 1871	7,022,000 00
United States 6s of 1881—act of July, 1861	50,002,000 00
" " " —act of February, 1861	18,415,000 00
Texas indemnity	3,461,000 00
Oregon war debt	1,026,600 00
Texas debt	112,092 59
Old funded and unfunded debt	114,115 52
United States 6s, called five-twenties	36,593,856 00
Total	$295,068,255 91

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF PORK PACKING IN THE WEST.

THE Cincinnati *Price Current* of April gives the following annual statement of pork packing in the West:

Over two months ago we published statistics in the *Price Current* which indicated very accurately what would be the result of pork packing the present season; and, though we have been in possession of the great bulk of the returns since then, and of all but about eight or ten during the last three weeks, we deferred publishing this, our usual annual statement, until now, in order to be able to make it full and complete. The result is wonderful. The number of hogs packed the present season, it will be seen, is over *four million* head, being an increase over the packing of the season of 1861–62 of over a million and a quarter, namely, 1,175,787, being an increase of 40$\frac{1}{5}$ per cent. The decrease in weight is 7$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, leaving a net increase of over 32$\frac{3}{4}$ per cent as compared with last year. The yield of leaf lard is five pounds per hog less than it was in 1861–62, but owing to the great increase in the number of hogs slaughtered, there is an absolute increase in quantity of 27$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent over last season. In these comparisons we do not include the Tennessee packing last season.

It will be seen that the great increase was in that section of the West tributary to Chicago, but of all that section, in no place was that increase so marked as in Iowa, and our correspondents in that State say that fully one-half of the hogs packed in Chicago were shipped from thence, and explain the enormous increase in this way. The corn crop in that State, the past two years, was an unusually good one; but owing to the blockade of the Mississippi, the usual channel of outlet to a market, and the low price, the article did not admit of transportation to the East; it was therefore as a matter of necessity fed to hogs, to an extent unusual, and which would not have been the case had a market been accessible. This applies not only to Iowa, but to that portion of Illinois bordering upon the Upper Mississippi. Owing to the great speculation in, and high rate of gold, remunerative prices were obtained, which proved of as much advantage to the feeders as if the currency was down to a specie basis. The rise in gold affected none but those who used foreign goods, and of these the agricultural classes use but little.

It will be seen that there is a large increase in all the States but Kentucky, and in that State there is a decrease, but this is not wonderful, and the surprise is that the packing along the Ohio was as large as it has been, owing to the disturbed state of affairs and the repeated menaces of the rebels along the border.

When the season opened, owing to the large stock of barrel and bulk meat on hand, and which had become next to unsalable, the impression was general that the product of the hog crop, which the trade then did not suppose would exceed that of the previous season, and, in many cases, that it would not come up to it, should be packed in shape for foreign markets,

as but a small amount would be needed for a home market; and, therefore, boxing sides, shoulders, and hams for the Liverpool market was the rule throughout, and it was not until in December that any of consequence was put in barrels for a home market. This naturally led to shipments of boxed meats abroad to an extent vastly greater than the previous season; and owing to the high premium on gold and sterling exchange, this meat was furnished in the foreign markets at prices below the previous year, and which has induced a largely increased consumption in England, France, Germany, Holland, and Denmark.

The amount of mess pork packed has been small, unusually so. We have no returns on this point to enable us to make any estimate approaching accuracy, but we think it was not over one-third the amount packed the previous season. The scarcity and high price of cooperage had some influence in diminishing the amount. A good deal of that packed in barrels was prime mess—anticipating an army demand.

Last season, owing to the very low price and the unsettled state of the public mind, and the want of confidence in the currency, an unusual number of hogs were packed by farmers and country merchants, as we stated in our last annual report; this season this was almost universally avoided, as the packing done in this way last season, the sequel has shown, proved most unwise, and generally resulted in heavy losses to the parties, because the meat was generally unsalable.

The yield of lard given below is what is called leaf lard only. In many places the greater portion of the hogs was rendered into lard, but this was not done as generally as it was last season, which was partly owing to the fact that the hogs were not so well fatted, and partly to the higher prices paid for them. Lard was considered lower in proportion than the meat, and hence it was bought and is held on speculation, as mess pork was last season. The shipments to foreign countries have been large.

RECAPITULATION.

	1861–62.	1862–63.
Ohio	$791,099	$981,683
Iowa	205,188	403,899
Indiana	495,298	587,528
Illinois	835,881	1,484,834
Missouri	138,766	284,011
Kentucky	144,945	130,920
Wisconsin	100,556	196,745
Tennessee	182,000	.....
Grand total	$2,893,733	$4,069,520
		2,893,733
Increase	.....	$1,175,787

Now, although a large portion of the pork cured in Tennessee last season by the rebel government, was brought to this and other markets after the rebels were driven from that State last spring, yet a good deal of it was spoiled; and taking all the circumstances into consideration, the Tennessee packing last season ought not, we think, to be taken into account this season, no more than it was last season, by the trade. Leaving Tennessee,

then, out of the comparison, we have an increase in the other States of $1,757,787, which is equal to a shade over 40 7/8 per cent, and if Tennessee is included, the increase is equal to slightly over 40 per cent. This is very remarkable, and exceeds the estimate we made last January by over 160,000 head, for we did not include Tennessee in that estimate.

With regard to the average weight and the yield of lard, we have the following result by States, though we failed, as usual, to get the average weights in many cases, and the yield of lard in a still greater number of cases, but both were given more generally than they were last season:

	Average weight per hog.		Yield of lard per hog.	
	1861–62.	1862–63.	1861–62.	1862–63.
Ohio ..... lbs.	230	223½	34	27
Indiana	221½	209	30¾	27
Illinois	236	217½	39½	28
Kentucky	221	204	30½	31
Missouri	227	220	34½	29
Iowa	224	209½	34	26½
Wisconsin	260	224	35	33½

The aggregate weights of similar numbers of hogs, packed at each point from whence the average weights were furnished last season and this, compare as follows:

1861–62 ..... pounds	527,223,691
1862–63	487,682,115
Difference	39,541,576

This is equal to about 7½ per cent, and which may be regarded as correct an indicator, as is necessary, of the per centage of decrease in weight of the entire packing, and this being deducted from the increase in number, not including Tennessee, makes the net increase slightly over 33½ per cent.

The yield of lard per hog last season was 34 pounds; this season it was 29 pounds, showing a decrease of five pounds per hog; but the number of hogs being vastly greater this than last season, this falling off is more than made up, which will be seen by taking the whole number of hogs packed both seasons, and multiplying them with the yield of lard, each season respectively, as follows, not including the Tennessee packing last season:

1862–63 ..... pounds	118,016,080
1861–62	92,198,922
Increase this season	25,817,158

Here, then, we find there is an actual increase of 27½ per cent. We will here remark that the yield of lard given above, as well as in previous years, does not include head and gut lard or grease, as in all cases where the head and gut is added, we exclude it from our tables.

We expected to have been able to give the number of hogs sent from the West to the Eastern cities, by the various railways, during the packing season, but have not yet been furnished with the number received at Buffalo, or the number shipped through Canada. The following are the compara-

tive shipments by the New York and Erie Railway, from Dunkirk, and the Pennsylvania Central, from Pittsburg, from November 1st to February 1st, this and last season:

	1861–62.	1862–63.
New York and Erie.....	124,792	136,007
Pennsylvania Central.....	205,103	171,496
Total.....	329,895	307,503

We understand that there is a marked increase in the shipments through Canada and the receipts at Buffalo. We will give the exports by these routes as soon as we get them.

We have to acknowledge ourselves under renewed obligations to our friends for the promptness with which they have furnished us the information we asked for.

BOSTON COMPETING FOR THE WESTERN TRADE.

Boston is taking advantage of the special interest now felt in Western transportation, to improve her facilities for accommodating the trade of the Northwestern States. In March, at the annual meeting of the Boston Corn Exchange, a report was made, urging the importance of enhancing the advantages of that city "as a shipping point for the productions of the West, by affording every possible facility to deliver flour and other produce at as low a rate of freight in Boston as it can be sent to New York or Portland."

Probably in reference to this demand, the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* of March 14th says:

"A convention of the representatives of our Northern railroads, connecting with lake navigation, has lately been held at the Revere House in this city, at which (though the fact of the meeting is not generally known to the public) it is understood arrangements were made for largely increased facilities for the accommodation of Western trade. Several hundred new freight cars are to be placed immediately on these routes, and a scale of tariff was agreed upon which cannot fail to be satisfactory to shippers and vastly enhance the volume as well as the profits of this trade. Not only this, but so far as Boston is concerned, we are happy to be able to say, that arrangements (which we are not as yet at liberty to detail) have been perfected, by which Western railroad transportation will connect directly with deep water navigation at this port, bringing cars and ships into the most intimate possible juxtaposition. This is a commercial desideratum much needed and long desired, in bringing the cost of freightage within the smallest practicable limits, and may now be considered *un fait accompli*.

Our railroad corporations have not moved too soon in this matter for their own or the public interest; and we may be allowed to congratulate our fellow citizens upon the increased business and prosperity which these important arrangements cannot fail to give this commercial metropolis.

RAILWAY, CANAL, AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

THE BROADWAY RAILROAD—ACTION OF THE COMMON COUNCIL.

THE following resolutions permitting the New York and Harlem Railroad Company to extend their railroad through Broadway and other streets were passed by the Common Council April 21, 1863:

To the Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the city of New York:

The New York and Harlem Railroad Company apply for permission to extend their railroad from their Fourth Avenue track, near the point of its intersection with Fifteenth-street, southerly through Broadway by a double track to the foot of Whitehall-street, connecting at Park Row with their present track, with liberty to extend a single track around Bowling Green and through State-street to the foot of Whitehall-street, with the switches and turnouts necessary for the convenient transaction of their business; and also to extend their railroad with double track from Fourth Avenue through Twenty-third-street to Madison Avenue, and thence up Madison Avenue to Eighty-sixth-street.

[L. S.] W. H. EMERSON,
Secretary New York and Harlem Railroad Co.

A resolution permitting the New York and Harlem Railroad Company to extend their railroad through certain streets in the city of New York.

Whereas, The Legislature of the State of New York did, by an act passed April 6, 1863, and entitled "An Act to amend an Act entitled an Act to Incorporate the New York and Harlem Railroad Company, passed 25th April, 1832," authorized and empowered the New York and Harlem Railroad Company to extend their railroad through such streets in the city of New York as the Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the city may from time to time permit; and

Whereas, It has become necessary, for the convenience of the public that railroad cars, propelled by horse-power, should be run in Broadway, to and from Union Square to the South and Fulton ferries; and

Whereas, The New York and Harlem Railroad Company have offered to extend their railroad in such manner as to afford to the public the requisite accommodation, and have also proposed to pay into the Treasury of the city, for the relief of the citizens from taxation, ten per cent of the gross receipts received by them for all travel on the extensions of the railroad below Union Square hereinafter authorized.

Now, therefore, the Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the city of New York, in Common Council convened, do resolve as follows:

I. Permission is hereby granted to the New York and Harlem Railroad Company, and they are hereby required to extend their railroad and to construct a double track of rails from their present Fourth Avenue track, between Seventeenth and Fifteenth streets, through Broadway to the foot of

Whitehall-street, with liberty to extend and construct an additional single track around Bowling Green, and through State-street to the foot of Whitehall-street; and also an additional single track around Union Square; and also with permission to extend and construct a single track from the track in Broadway, through John-street to Burling Slip, thence through Burling Slip to South-street, thence through South-street to Fulton-street, and thence through Fulton-street to the main track in Broadway, with the necessary switches and turnouts for the convenient transaction of their business; and to place cars thereon adapted to the convenience and comfort of passengers, and to run the same as often as the public convenience may require.

II. Permission is also granted to the New York and Harlem Railroad Company, and they are hereby required to extend their railroad and to construct a double track, with the necessary switches and turnouts from their present track in Fourth Avenue through Twenty-third-street to Madison Avenue; thence through Madison Avenue as far as Madison is, or may from time to time be opened; with permission to extend and construct a single or double track from their track on Fourth Avenue through Twenty-fourth street to Madison Avenue; and to place and run their small cars thereon as often as the public convenience may require.

III. Provided, however, that the New York and Harlem Railroad Company shall, within ten days after the first day of each month, render to the Controller of the city, a statement authenticated by their treasurer of the gross receipts derived from all travel upon the extensions of their railroad below Union Square hereinbefore authorized, and shall, at the same time, pay to said Controller, for the benefit of the city, ten per cent of such gross receipts.

IV. *Provided further*, That the passenger fare shall not exceed the sum of five cents a passenger.

V. *Provided further*, That said track or tracks shall be laid upon a good foundation, with the most approved rail, the pattern whereof shall be submitted to the Mayor for his approval; and the extension hereby authorized shall be commenced without unnecessary delay, and be completed with all the expedition practicable.

VI. *Provided further*, That the following provisions of the act of the Legislature of April 6, 1832, shall be observed by and the same are enjoined upon the said the New York and Harlem Railroad Company, viz.:

"SEC. 4. No carriage or vehicle shall be drawn or propelled by any other than horse power through any street of said city south of Fourteenth-street.

"SEC. 5. Every carriage or vehicle drawn or propelled on said railroad shall be provided with suitable safeguards projecting in a descending direction, near the surface of the rails, in front of each forward wheel in such a manner as to insure the greatest safety against accidents.

"SEC. 6. No such carriage or vehicle shall be drawn or propelled at a greater speed than at the rate of five miles an hour in any street of said city below Fourteenth-street."

VII. *Provided further*, That the New York and Harlem Railroad Company shall, at their own expense, keep in good order and sufficient repair the pavement between the curbs of Broadway from Union Square to Bowling Green, and also of those parts of John, South, and Fulton streets through which the extensions hereinbefore authorized shall be constructed.

VIII. *Provided further*, That the New York and Harlem Railroad Com-

pany shall pay the city of New York a license fee of twenty-five dollars per annum for each car which they may run upon the extensions hereby authorized; and

IX. *Provided further*, That the New York and Harlem Railroad Company shall, within ten days from the passage of this resolution, notify the Mayor in writing of their acceptance thereof.

CANADIAN CANAL TOLLS.

The Governor-General in Council has issued a proclamation stating that the canal tolls would be reimposed, commencing to take effect on April 15th. The following are the particulars:

Steam vessels, per ton, 2½ cents on the Welland Canal, each way; St. Lawrence Canal, 1½ cents; Chambly and St. Ours, 1½ cents; Lake Erie to Montreal, 4 cents; Burlington Bay Canal, one-half cent; Ottawa Canal, 5 cents; St. Anne's Lock, one-quarter cent. The same dues will be exacted of sail vessels, with the exception of Burlington Bay Canal, which will be one-quarter cent. Passengers 21 years of age and upwards, 10 cents on the Welland, St. Lawrence, and Ottawa Canals; 5 cents on the Chambly and St. Ours; 2 cents on the Burlington, and one-half cent on the St. Anne's.

"Bark, barley, bricks, cement, coal, corn, iron, lime; ores, copper and iron, salt; stone unwrought, and wheat, 20 cents on the Welland Canal, 15 cents on the St. Lawrence, and 10 cents on the Chambly, St. Ours, and Ottawa canals; 35 cents from Lake Erie to Montreal, and 3 cents on the St. Anne's Lock.

"Apples, agricultural products, not enumerated. Ashes, beef, bacon, bran, ship-stuff, broom-corn, cattle, raw cotton, fish, flax, flour, window glass, pressed hay, hams, hogs, hoops, horses, wrought iron in sheets, bars, or forgings; iron castings, lard, lard oil, meal of all kinds, marble, nails, oil in barrels; pork, sheep, stone wrought, manufactured tobacco and tallow, will pay 25 cents on the Welland Canal, 20 cents on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa; 15 cents on the Chambly, St. Ours, and Burlington canals. Through tolls from Lake Erie to Montreal, 45 cents; 5 cents St. Anne's.

"Agricultural implements, baggage of settlers, beer, butter, biscuit, carts, cheese, cider, coffee, crockery, earthenware, furniture, glassware, hides and raw skins, hemp, molasses, paint, pitch, rosin, ship stores, sleighs, sugar, tar, tin, turpentine, whisky, highwines and spirits, and wool, will pay 30 cents on the Welland Canal, 25 cents on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa canals, and 15 cents on the Chambly and St. Ours canals. Through from Lake Erie to Montreal, 55 cents; Burlington 20 cents, and St. Anne's 5 cents. Firewood, per cord, in vessels, 20 cents on the Welland and St. Lawrence canals; 10 cents on the Chambly, St. Ours, and Burlington. Through from Lake Erie to Montreal, 40 cents, Ottawa, 20 cents, and St. Anne's, 3 cents. Wood in rafts will pay 25 cents on the Welland and St. Lawrence canals, 15 cents on the Chambly, St. Ours, and Burlington. From Lake Erie to Montreal, 50 cents, Ottawa, 28 cents, and St. Anne's, 3 cents. Square timber on vessels per M cubic feet, $3 on the Welland Canal; $1 on the St. Lawrence and Chambly and St. Ours canals. Through from Montreal to Lake Erie, 50 cents, Burlington Canal, 75 cents, Ottawa, 25 cents, St. Anne's, 25 cents. For rafted lumber double rates will be charged on all the canals but St. Anne's, on which the price will be the same."

RAILROADS IN FRANCE.

The official return relative to the working of railroads in France, in 1862, compared with 1861, has been published. It shows that the total length of railway worked on the 31st December last was 11,074 kilometres, which are 6,921 miles; and that at the corresponding date of 1861 the length was 10,090 kilometres, or 6,306 miles. The total receipts of 1862 were 475,958,364f, or $95,191,673; and of 1861, 461,547,888f, or $92,309,578. The railways are divided into two classes—one called "Old Network," which means the lines originally conceded to which the government gives no guarantee; the other the "New Network," which signifies prolongations or embranchments of the same or new lines to which interest is guaranteed. The following are the principal features in the return (the kilometre is five-eighths of a mile:)

OLD NETWORK.

Names of Railway.	Length—kilometres.		Receipts—francs.	
	1862.	1861.	1862.	1861.
Northern	1,053	967	65,754,007	64,368,019
Eastern	963	963	46,889,340	49,451,672
Western	900	900	47,280,517	50,736,275
Orleans	1,627	1,477	66,503,931	70,068,065
Lyons and Mediterranean	1,462	1,412	125,980,581	121,494,055
Lyons to Geneva	237	237	7,041,336	7,259,221
Southern	797	797	31,393,612	29,070,572
Victor Emmanuel	116	104	1,690,604	1,429,786
Ceinture (round Paris)	17	17	2,136,167	2,168,828
Graissessac to Beziers	51	51	693,752	558,297
Besseges to Alais	32	32	1,695,838	1,388,954
Anzin to Somain	19	19	586,203	470,318
Carmaux to Albi	15	15	297,422	273,196
Lyons to la Croix-Rouse	1	..	.....	.....
Total	7,290	6,991	397,843,310	398,737,258

NEW NETWORK.

Northern	113	143	2,698,827	546,234
Eastern	773	744	20,455,978	20,382,632
Ardenness	355	187	5,950,108	4,131,212
Western	407	312	4,940,586	4,485,081
Orleans	755	658	9,297,732	6,201,111
Lyons and Mediterranean	910	737	29,225,050	23,094,142
Dauphine	179	158	3,483,649	3,066,769
Southern	292	160	2,063,124	913,449
Total	3,784	3,099	78,115,054	62,810,630

RECAPITULATION.

Old network	7,290	6,991	397,843,310	398,737,258
New network	3,784	3,099	78,115,054	62,810,630
Grand total	11,074	10,090	475,958,364	461,547,888

RAILROADS IN NEW YORK.

The official report of the State Engineer on the Railroads of New York has been laid before the Assembly. Sixty-six companies have made reports, and sixteen neglected to report, showing eighty-two companies in the State. The report shows the amount of capital stock as per charter and acts of Legislature..... $102,054,400
Amount capital stock paid in..... 87,404,685
Amount funded debt..... $69,067,988
Amount floating debt..... 1,670,270
Amount funded and floating debt..... $70,738,254
Total cost of construction and equipment of roads..... 145,186,963
Total cost excluding city roads..... 136,559,727
Length of roads in miles..... 3,319
Length of roads laid..... 2,800
Length of roads in operation, &c., excluding city roads. 2,700
Miles run by passenger trains..... 10,850,907
Miles run by passenger trains, city..... 6,448,777
Total,..... $17,299,684
No. of passengers of all classes carried in cars..... 59,690,601
Same, excluding city cars..... 12,870,455
Number of miles traveled by passengers, city roads not included..... 344,380,369
Miles run by freight trains..... 9,596,696
Number of tons carried..... 6,506,173
Total earnings..... $29,507,180
Of city roads..... 2,344,051
Total payments, including dividends, amount to surplus, funds, &c..... 26,221,180
Of which city roads..... 2,431,607
Number of passengers killed..... 22
Of which on city roads..... 6
Number of passengers injured..... 45
Of which by city roads..... 21
Number of employees killed..... 51
Others than employees and passengers killed..... 80
Others than employees and passengers injured..... 42
Total killed (city roads 12)..... 153
Total injured (city roads 31)..... 115
Average cost per mile of road and equipment, excluding city roads..... $50,396 50
Average cost per mile of single track..... 32,386 24

THE REPORT ON THE HOOSAC TUNNEL.

We give below a few extracts from the report of the commissioners appointed by the Governor of Massachusetts to take possession of the Troy and Greenfield Railroad property, and inquire into the best method of completing the line. The tunnel itself is of course the part of the work which was the chief object of attention for the commissioners. The mountain under which the tunnel has to pass has two summits, the eastern, 1,415 feet above the grade of the road, and the western, 1,704 feet

above, with a swampy valley lying between, which is 801 feet above the grade. The length of the tunnel, as heretofore reported to the Legislature, is 24,100 feet; as found by survey it is 25,574 feet, and as proposed by the commissioners is 24,586 feet or 4.66 miles. From the east end the tunnel has been driven 2,394 feet, through mica and talcose slate, with veins of quartz, and quite regular in structure. At the west end the rock is for half a mile silicious, covered by clay gravel and boulders, full of water and difficult to work; but the chief formation appears to be that first described, which is quite uniform in structure, the dip of the strata being favorable for working and for keeping out of water.

In their investigations as to the completion of the work, the commissioners consulted freely through Mr. Storrow the results of foreign experience. Of the tunnels described in the report we can only notice two or three. The Almondsbury Tunnel, now being built on the Bristol and South Wales Junction line in England, although for a single track and but ¼ of a mile long, is to be 17 feet wide at the rails, 18½ at the widest part, and 19 feet high above the rails. The Hauenstein in Switzerland, a mile and-a-half long, with a rising grade of 132 feet per mile, is 26 feet wide and 20 feet above the rails. The great Mont Cenis Tunnel under the Alps is to be seven and-a-half miles long, and has been carried 1,268 yards. It is to be 26 feet 3 inches wide at the widest part, and 20 feet 8 inches high above the rails. This work is going on without shafts, and the tunnel is to ventilate itself by the current of air which will set towards the Italian end, which is the highest. The Kingwood Tunnel, on the Baltimore and Ohio Road, is three-fourths of a mile long, 22 feet wide, and 21 feet high above the rail, and is very badly ventilated.

The foreign authorities who were consulted were unanimously of the opinion that the present section of the Hoosac is too small, and that a shaft near the middle of the tunnel would be found indispensable.

In the Mont Cenis Tunnel the progress now made is upwards of forty yards per month, and has averaged from the outset with hand labor 22½ yards per month. The commissioners estimate that with hand labor the Hoosac Tunnel could be completed in eleven years and four months; or working the end faces with machines and the interior faces by hand, in 7½ years; and they therefore set 8 years as a reasonable estimate of the time necessary to complete it.

Their estimate of cost the commissioners base upon hand labor, regarding the use of machinery as in some degree experimental, and using any savings affected by it to offset unforeseen expenses, foreign experience showing that machine labor, if it saves time, does not usually save money. They make their estimate of cost as follows:

988 feet of open cutting	$60,000
Enlarging present tunnel	69,000
Sinking shaft 1,027 feet deep	262,768
Excavating tunnel, 1,350 feet at $200, and 20,936 feet at $5 per cubic yard	1,944,880
Superstructure	60,000
Contingencies, engineering, etc	299,581
Interest at 5 per cent compounded for eight years of work.	522,094
Total	$3,218,323

Including $1,431,447, the value of labor already expended, cost of rolling stock, etc., this makes the total cost of the road and tunnel, $5,719,330.

The commissioners arrive at the conclusion that on the tunnel line there would be a saving of five per cent in cost of transportation, which with the reduction of distance would make ten per cent between the Hudson River and Boston. In comparing the tunnel route with the Hudson River line to New York, they find that during open navigation, when freight goes from Albany to New York by water, the rates to New York would be less than to Boston—offset, however, by smaller storage expenses and perhaps by saving a transshipment at Troy—leaving a margin in favor of New York against the shorter distance from Boston to Liverpool. In the winter months, however, a much larger margin is found in favor of Boston.

The commissioners find that New York has invested in lines of connection with the West about $65,000,000; Pennsylvania and Philadelphia about $40,000,000; Maryland and Baltimore about $12,000,000; individuals in these States and cities about $117,500,000; Canada about $75,000,000; the State of Massachusetts $5,000,000, and individuals, with the city of Albany, $11,000,000.

In conclusion, the commissioners express an opinion that the work should be undertaken by the commonwealth and completed as soon as possible, with due regard to economy.

THE POLISH FINANCES.

The Polish Committee in Paris is endeavoring to obtain a loan of two million dollars. The Polish emigrants in the French capital have supplied considerable sums, but they are insufficient, and large purchases of arms are required. Among the collections ordinarily made in the churches in Poland at the Easter fetes, the most fruitful this year has been that for the insurrection. More than one hundred thousand roubles, it is said have been raised in this way. A particular mark has distinguished the box destined for this collection, and the persons who come to the church recognize it at once. In the common feasts which take place at this time of the year, the well-to-do families have all invited the workmen, and the citizens have renewed their oaths of fraternity. Those who have eaten together will, perhaps, die together to-morrow.

FOREIGN POSTAGE—WHEN TO BE PAID IN COIN.

The Post-office Department has just issued an order to postmasters directing that from and after the 1st of May, to collect in specie, or its equivalent, all postages due on unpaid letters received from foreign countries in the mails dispatched to this country from Great Britain, Ireland, Prussia, France, Hamburg, Bremen, or Belgium. The order at present applies only to those mails. On outgoing letters the existing regulations remain unchanged. Under the existing postal arrangements, postages collected on foreign letters must be accounted for to the foreign government in specie or its equivalent.

THE COTTON QUESTION.

EXPORT OF COTTON FROM AMERICA.

THE *Courrier du Dimanche* publishes the following despatch, addressed by M. DROUYN DE L'HUYS to the French Minister at Washington several months ago:

Paris, Nov. 15, 1862.

"I have read with particular interest the fresh information which you send me as to the measures by means of which the Federal authorities think they may facilitate the exportation of cotton from New Orleans. Mr. SEWARD stated with satisfaction, in his letter to you of September 11, that the exportation of cotton from that city for Europe was now freed from all hindrance, and that trade had now to encounter no other obstacles than such as it might meet with from the Confederate Government. He moreover, on the 4th of October following, communicated to you the text of certain instructions then recently addressed to the Treasury agents, with the view of preventing them, in carrying out the confiscation law, from doing anything, either on the ground of the origin of the goods, or of previous transactions respecting them, to interfere with the operations of buyers. Without denying the more favorable disposition of Mr. SEWARD, it is not the less true that Europe finds nearly as much difficulty as ever in getting cotton from the United States. In point of fact, the Federal Government still leaves in full operation some of the restrictions which, either directly or indirectly, it opposed to the exportation of that material. For instance, the exchange of cotton against European goods continues to be hampered, not only by the positive prohibition to import various kinds of merchandise to New Orleans, and particularly brandies, but also by the power given to the custom-house authorities, and the American consuls in foreign ports, to prevent the exportation to New Orleans of several other articles, among which is wine.

"While admitting that the instructions lately sent to the Treasury agents tend to mitigate the effects of the confiscation law by a liberal interpretation, I nevertheless persist in considering the maintenance of art. 2 of the regulations of August 28 last, which prohibits the transport of bullion to the Confederate States, and any payment in gold or silver of merchandise bought in those countries, and which orders the confiscation of all such merchandise whatever as shall have been paid for in metallic currency, as a very serious obstacle to the exportation of cotton. The Secretary of the Treasury observes, it is true, that cottons purchased of the Confederates may be paid for either in Federal paper or in bills upon the Federal banks, in whose hands the buyers may lodge specie to pay for their purchases; but it seems to me very improbable that the present holders of cotton would consent to that mode of payment. Mr. CHASE points out, moreover, the utility for all of us not to give the Confederates, by supplies of specie, fresh resources for carrying on a war of which Europe, as well as America, feels the disastrous effects. But there is nothing to justify the supposition that the interdiction of these exportations of specie would have any effect in abridging the duration of the struggle. I therefore observed with pleasure in Mr. CHASE's letter to Mr. SEWARD a passage which indicates a settled intention to allow cotton to be paid for

in specie, if the European powers should persevere in their remonstrance against the prohibition. I request you, Sir, in your conversations with Mr. SEWARD, to endeavor to persuade him to realize this intention without delay. A sentiment of reserve, easy to be understood, prevents us from peremptorily demanding the reversal of a measure of internal policy; but when you shall have shown the inconveniences and the practical inutility of it, we may well hope that our wishes will be taken into serious consideration. In any case, I shall be obliged to you to keep me informed of the new steps which you may take with a view to effect this object."

CONTRACTS IN INDIA.

The *Money Market Review* of London says: "We firmly believe that the future supply of cotton from India depends greatly upon the passing of a law for the due fulfilment of contracts. In India the future is always in pawn; nothing is done without being partly or wholly paid for before it is begun; and, unfortunately for Manchester, the breach of contracts for the cultivation of indigo, and the consequent want of confidence on the part of the planters as towards the ryots, were prominently under notice just at the time when the cotton famine commenced. The consequence has been the utmost distrust between capital and labor; and, with the indigo breaches of contract before their eyes, the planters and capitalists in India were exceedingly unwilling to advance the necessary funds for the sowing of cotton in the absence of a law for the due fulfilment of contracts. Hence, far less cotton has been planted than the wants of Manchester require; and this, in great measure, because Sir CHARLES WOOD vetoed the contract law which the Legislature in India had passed. We have some reason to believe, however, that the Indian Legislature are about to introduce another contract law, notwithstanding the snubbing which their former attempt experienced, and, pending its passing, it is intended to put in force in the agricultural districts the law which the government have passed for the due fulfilment of their own contracts in respect to public works. It is absolutely necessary, however, that a contract law should exist in India, even on the grounds of public morality. The objection of Sir CHARLES WOOD appears to be against making the breach of a civil contract penal in its punishment; but it seems to us that what is wanted is: 1. That all contracts should be registered and signed in duplicate. 2. The magistrates should be empowered to assess the damages caused by their non-fulfilment, and levy the amount on the land held by the defaulter. If more than one contract with different persons has been broken, the produce of the land should be seized and divided pro rata amongst those who have suffered by the default. Such a law as this, duly supported by a short, sharp, and inexpressive process, would be effectual to enforce contracts. The Hindoo is sadly deficient in moral principle, and fearfully addicted to perjury and forgery, and the only way to keep him honest is to make it more profitable for him to be so than to be otherwise—in fact, to make it abundantly clear to him that honesty is the best policy. When once he is taught to feel that he will lose every thing by a breach of contract, and that all he possesses will be liable for the due fulfilment of his engagements, he will come to the conclusion that if he enters into any contract at all he will have to fulfil it, and the consequence will either be that the system of contracts and advances will cease altogether, or they will cease to be broken.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SOUTH ENTRANCE TO MORETON BAY BY ROUS OR THE AMITY POINT CHANNEL.

The *Nautical Magazine*, of London, gives the following official notice to mariners, respecting the south entrance to Moreton Bay, by Lieutenant G. P. Heath, R. N., Portmaster and Marine Surveyor:

Two red beacons—visible from the Flat Rock—are now placed on the south extreme of Moreton Island, to enable vessels entering Rous or the Amity Point Channel, to pass between the outer banks and over the bar, in the deepest water, viz.: seventeen feet at low water spring tides.

This channel is chiefly available for coasting steamers by daylight, when there is not a heavy swell on the coast.

It is not recommended for sailing vessels, except in fine weather and a commanding breeze, when they may lay four points to the windward of their course.

The coast current runs two to three knots to the southward, close to the outer edge of the bar, and at a lesser speed over the outer portion of the banks; and vessels should be careful in northerly winds not to get to the southward of the line of beacons until well inside the north break. The tides set fair through this channel from three to four and-a-half knots, until they come within the influence of the coast current.

The sea always breaks on the north bank, but the space where it breaks on the south bank varies with the amount of swell on the coast.

Six red buoys, and six black buoys and beacons, mark the channel for crossing the bay towards Mud Island, between the inner banks.

There is not less than two fathoms, at low water spring tides, in this channel, except at a point of junction with the Cleveland Ship Channel, where the depth of water is never less than nine feet at low water spring tides.

Beacons will be erected at those points where they will prove of service as soon as, from the nature of the bottom, it is found they can be made permanent.

Directions.—Vessels from the southward for Moreton Bay by the south, or Amity Point Entrance, or Rous Channel, after passing either inside or outside of the Flat Rock, must keep the northernmost sand patch on Moreton Island on the port bow until the two red beacons on the south extreme of Moreton Island (the innermost of which is the higher of the two) are in one; then keep them so until inside the north break, when haul up to the southward gradually, keeping at about a cable's length from the edge of the north bank, which is steep to and always shows. When near the dry detached sandbank haul up for the N. W extreme of Stradbroke Island, and round the red buoy off the shoal extending to the S. W. of the detached sand bank. On passing this, keep away west, and pass at two cable's length from the S. W. extreme of Moreton Island, which is steep to. Leave the first black buoy on the port hand at a dis-

tance of about half a cable, and haul up W. by S. for the S. E. end of the high land on St. Helena.

After passing the second black buoy, haul up S. S. W. for Mount Cotton, passing the fourth red buoy on the extremity of a sand spit on the starboard hand, and continuing the same course until abreast the fifth red buoy, when keep away W. by S. ¼ S. and pass the sixth red buoy. From thence keep away for, and pass on the port hand, the second black beacon at not more than half a cable, and steer out W. by N. ¼ N. in mid-channel between the inner black and red buoys.

When the buoys are passed, a vessel is in the Ship Channel to Cleveland; across which a course must be steered for the middle of the opening between Mud and St. Helena islands; a mid-channel course must be kept between these islands, and a vessel may from thence steer for the anchorage off the bar.

Vessels outward-bound through the south entrance, should, after passing Mud Island, steer for the north extreme of high land on Stradbroke Island, until a small smooth-topped cone near the north end of Stradbroke Island bears E. by S. ¼ S., when they should haul up and steer for it, passing between the inner red and black buoys, and passing the inner black beacon as previously directed.

VINYARDS IN CALIFORNIA.

We learn from the report of a committee appointed by the Assembly of California on the petition of the wine-growers of that State, that the number of grape-vines set in vinyards in the State, according to the reports of the County Assessors, as complied in the Surveyor-General's report for 1862, is 10,592,688. The following principal wine counties have the number of vines set down against them respectively:

Los Angeles	2,570,000	Amador	311,000
Sonoma	1,701,561	Calaveras	300,000
El Dorado	772,547	San Joaquin	300,000
Yuba	650,450	Yolo	234,430
Santa Clara	600,000	Tulare	225,000
Napa	540,000	Tuolumne	197,300
San Bernardino	500,000	Contra Costa	184,200
Sacramento	412,000	Placer	135,532
Solano	400,000	Santa Barbara	115,000

The rate of increase in the number and size of vinyards is large. All the vines of the State did not number 1,000,000 seven years ago. Los Angeles, which has three times as many vines surviving from the time of the Mexican domain as all the other counties together, had 592,000 bearing vines, and 134,000 young vines in 1856, according to the County Assessor's report for that year. The annual increase in the State has been about 1,500,000 since then; and though less hereafter, it will still be large.

The amount of wine made in 1861 is reported, very incorrectly, by the County Assessors as amounting to 343,000 gallons. The amount made in 1862 was about 700,000 gallons. The total amount made in all the other States of the Union in 1859, according to the United States census, was 1,350,000 gallons.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

DECISIONS BY THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

THE following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury, of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors, relating to the proper classification, under the tariff acts of March 2, 1861, August 5, 1861, and July 14, 1862, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production entered at the ports of Boston, New York, &c.

BENZOLE, OR BENZONE.

Treasury Department, February 9, 1863.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of S. M. HOLMES, from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 20 cents per gallon, on certain "Benzole," or "Benzone," contained in an entry made by him January 27, 1863.

The appellant claims "that it is only liable to a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem, as an unenumerated article, and subject to the provisions of the last clause of section 24 of the act of March 2, 1861."

"Benzole," or "Benzone," is the first run of the stills in the distillation of Petroleum—much lighter and more ethereal than the oil which follows, and very similar in character to spirits of turpentine. It is used as a substitute for that article in painting, burning fluid, &c., &c., and for most purposes it is said to be equally useful; nor is it used for any purpose where spirits of turpentine may not be.

"Benzole," or "Benzone," is not specifically provided for in the existing tariff acts, but must be considered as falling within the provisions of section 20 of the act approved August 30, 1842, viz:

"That there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on each and every non-enumerated article which bears a similitude, either in material, quality, texture, or the use to which it may be applied, to any enumerated article chargeable with duty, the same rate of duty which is levied and charged on the enumerated article which it most resembles in any of the particulars before mention, &c., &c."

"Benzole," or "Benzone," most closely resembles spirits of turpentine, and is, in my opinion, subject to the same rate of duty, viz., fifteen cents per gallon, and I hereby direct it to be so classified.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

To N. G. ISBELL, Esq., *Collector, Detroit, Mich.*

ENTRY OF GOODS, INITIATED JULY 31, 1862.

Treasury Department, February 19, 1863.

SIR: I have received your report on the appeals of Messrs. CHAPMAN, LYON & NOYES, and others, from your decision subjecting to duty, under the tariff act of July 14, 1862, certain merchandise imported and entered by them prior to the 1st day of August—the day when said act went into effect—but the duties on which were not paid until that day.

The entry in this case was initiated on the 31st of July, but not completed, nor the goods formally delivered from the importing vessel, until on and after the 1st day of August.

Inc onformity with my decision of November 13, 1862, on an application from Messrs. FAIRCHILD & FANSHAWE, for withdrawal for consumption of certain blankets, I am of the opinion, the importers having made entry before the new act went into effect, but were unable to complete it, by causes beyond their control, that the goods must be considered subject to the rate of duty existing on the 31st of July last.

I am, very respecfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

To HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, New York.*

"OLD BOILERS" OF A BRITISH STEAMER.

Treasury Department, March 16, 1863.

SIR: Your letter transmitting an affidavit and appeal of Captain THOS. LEACH, of the steamer "Arabian," of Niagara, C. W., from your decision exacting duty, at the rate of $6 per ton, on certain old iron boilers, has been considered.

It appears the steamer "Arabian" cleared from Portland, Maine, for St. John via New York, and the captain finding the flues of the boilers defective, put into Boston in distress; had them replaced with new boilers, and sold the defective boilers as old iron.

The numerous acts of Congress laying duties on merchandise, as well as those regulating the collection of the same, uniformly contemplate the cargo; they refer to articles having the quality of merchandise in the ordinary and popular sense of the word. They refer also to goods intended to be introduced into the country for sale and consumption, or for the general purposes of commeree. It has been uniformly held that, to constitute an importation within the true meaning of the law, the arrival must be voluntary, with the intent to import.

Your decision exacting a duty at the rate of six dollars per ton on the old iron boilers, as above stated, is overruled.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Secretary of the Treasury.*

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, Boston, Mass.*

DISCRIMINATING DUTY—SPANISH BOTTOMS.

Treasury Department, March 16, 1863.

SIR: The appeal of Messrs. WEBSTER & CRAIG, on behalf of Messrs. M. ECHEVERRIA & Co., from your decision exacting 10 per cent discriminating duty on sundry merchandise imported by them, per Spanish bark "Teresta," from Matamoras, in September last, is before me.

The appellants allege the cargo of the "Teresta" was made up in chief part of wool, cotton, goat skins, and lead in bars; and the collector has no authority to assess duty on those articles, except in pursuance of some act of Congress fixing the rate and amount.

The said discriminating duty was charged in pursuance of the 3d section of the act of August 5, 1861; particularly of the following clause:

"And on all other articles, goods, wares, and merchandise, not imported direct from the place of their growth or production, or in foreign vessels, entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating du-

ties, tonnage, and other charges, shall be subject to pay, in addition to the duties imposed by this act, ten per centum ad valorem, &c."

Spain has no such treaty with the United States.

This general provision of law has not been repealed by any subsequent tariff act changing the rates of duty on specific articles. The ground assumed by the appellants is not tenable, but is at variance with the decisions of the Supreme Court; the latter regarding the revenue laws as a system, the general provisions of which remain in force, unless repealed in terms by or are repugnant to subsequent enactments.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., N. Y.*

TANNED CALFSKINS.

Treasury Department, March 16, 1863.

SIR: The appeal of WALLENTEIN & KUNST from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 30 per cent, on certain "tanned calfskins" imported by them, per ship John Russell, has been considered.

It is claimed by the appellants "that the goods in question are entitled to entry at the rate of 25 per cent ad valorem, under section 20 of tariff act 1861, as upper leather."

The merchandise was entered as "calfskins," and returned by the appraisers as "tanned calfskins."

The question now raised was disposed of by the decision of July 10, 1861, affirming your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 25 per cent, on similar goods, imported by S. MENDELSON.

Section 13 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, (under which the entry of the appellants was made,) imposes an additional duty of 5 per cent on "tanned leather of all descriptions."

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., N. Y.*

NUX VOMICA.

Treasury Department, March 16, 1863.

SIR: I have considered the appeal of FRED. LENNING from your decision assessing a duty of 30 per cent on certain "nux vomica," imported by him from Liverpool.

The appellant contends that the article in question is subject to a duty of 10 per cent only, as a production of a country beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and imported from a place this side of the Cape of Good Hope; that the tariff act of March 2, 1861, allowed "nux vomica" to be imported *free;* and that "nux vomica," not being mentioned in section 5 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, "it cannot be touched by the general clause, being specially provided for, as free, by act of March 2, 1861, and it must so remain, unless changed by special act by *name.*"

Section 5 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, is as follows:

"That from and after the day and year aforesaid, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected,

and paid, on the goods, wares, and merchandise enumerated and provided for in this section, imported from foreign countries, the following duties and rates of duty, that is to say: * * * * * * arsenic in all forms, ammonia, and sulphate and carbonate of ammonia; bark, cinchona, Peruvian, Lima, Calisaya, quilla, and all other medicinal barks, flowers, leaves, plants, roots, and seeds, not otherwise provided for, 20 per cent ad valorem."

I am clearly of the opinion that "nux vomica," being a medicinal seed, and "not otherwise provided for," is subject to this clause, and liable to duty at the rate of 20 per cent under it, and 10 per cent additional under section 14, as admitted by the appellant.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

WM. B. THOMAS, Esq., *Collector, &c., Philadelphia.*

COMMON BLUE PRINTED INDIA CHINA.

Treasury Department, March 16, 1863.

SIR: The appeal of RICHARD BRIGGS from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 40 per cent ad valorem, on certain "common blue printed India China," imported by him from Hong Kong, has been considered.

The appellant claims that the article is neither gilded, ornamented, or decorated in any manner; that it is not known or considered by the trade as "decorated;" and that it should pay but 35 per cent ad valorem.

By the act of July 14, 1862, section 12, China ware, in order to be rated at 35 per cent ad valorem, must only be "plain white." In the same section, "China ware gilded, ornamented or decorated in any manner, 40 per centum ad valorem."

The appellant admits that the China ware in question is "blue." An examination proved it to be ornamented with blue figures, landscapes, etc.

Your decision is affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

To HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, New York.*

VELLUM CLOTH.

Treasury Department, March 16, 1863.

SIR: I have examined the question presented by you to this Department, whether "vellum cloth" was subject, in February, 1862, to a duty at the rate of 25 per cent ad valorem, as levied by the collector at Portland, or, as suggested by you, to 30 per cent ad valorem.

It appears that the collector of Portland assessed the duty at 25 per cent on the article as a manufacture wholly of cotton, although styled "vellum cloth," under the assurance of the importer (who resides at Boston) that such rate of duty was assessed in Boston, under the classification of cotton manufactures not provided for. This assurance was, upon examination by him, found to be correct.

The article in question is well known as "tracing cloth," and is a manufacture of cotton, not specially designated in the existing tariffs; and was subject, in my opinion, in February, 1862, to a duty of 30 per cent ad valorem, under the 3d clause of the 14th section of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, which levies that rate "on all manufactures composed

wholly of cotton, bleached, unbleached, printed, painted, or dyed, not otherwise provided for."

Your action in the matter is hereby approved.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

To N. SARGENT, Esq., *Com. of Customs, Washington.*

MUSLIN DELAINES, AND GOODS OF SIMILAR DESCRIPTION.

Treasury Department, March 20, 1863.

SIR: On certain merchandise imported by CHARLES STODDARD and J. S. LOVERING, and others, you assess a duty of two cents per square yard, and thirty per cent ad valorem, under the clause in section 9 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, which levies an additional duty of two cents per square yard, as follows:

"On all delaines, cashmere delaines, muslin delaines, barege delaines, composed wholly or in part of worsted, wool, mohair, or goats' hair, and on all goods of similar description, not exceeding in value forty cents per square yard."

Messrs. STODDARD & LOVERING claim that the goods in question should be assessed at the rate of thirty-five per cent ad valorem, as manufactures of mixed materials, not otherwise provided for;" other importers of like goods claim that the proper classification should be as "other manufactures of worsted goods, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for;" others, again, as "manufactures not otherwise provided for, composed of mixed materials, in part of cotton, silk, wool, etc.;" and "that the goods in question are not 'similar to delaines'"

The clause of section 9 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, above quoted, provides for every description of delaines, whether dyed or printed, plain or twilled. It says, "*on all delaines, etc.,*" and "*on all goods of similar description,* not exceeding in value forty cents per square yard."

The question now arises, what constitutes "similar description?" I am of the opinion, that all goods composed of the same materials, and used for the same purpose as a delaine," must be treated as of "similar description." No line of demarcation can be drawn between one class of ladies' dress fabrics, composed of the materials named in the section quoted, and another, that will ensure a satisfactory degree of uniformity throughout the country. In this opinion a majority of the experts of the customs, to whom the subject has been referred, agree.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, etc., Boston.*

ROBINSON'S PATENT GROATS.

Treasury Department, January 22, 1863.

It has been decided by me, on a question presented by the collector at Boston, that an article styled "Robinson's Patent Groats" is a "manufacture not enumerated," and under existing tariffs, subject to a duty at the rate of 20 per cent ad valorem, and should not be classified as a medicinal preparation, under section 5 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862.

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

LAWS RELATING TO CUSTOMS.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

In sending us the following official copies of acts of the last Congress, the Secretary of the Treasury says:

"I transmit herewith copies of several acts of Congress, approved March 3, 1863, to wit:

An Act to facilitate the collection of the revenue in El Paso County, Texas, and in the Territory of New Mexico.

An Act to prevent and punishment frauds upon the revenue, to provide for the more certain and speedy collection of claims in favor of the United States, and for other purposes.

An Act to equalize and establish the compensation of the collectors of the customs on the northern, northeastern, and northwestern frontiers, and for other purposes.

An Act to modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes.

"There appears to be no necessity for any further instructions, at this time, in reference to the first three of these Acts. The seventh section of the last, which authorizes a drawback on foreign saltpetre, manufactured into gunpowder in the United States and exported therefrom, will be executed in conformity with the Treasury instructions of January 22, 1862."

An Act to facilitate the collection of the revenue in El Paso County, Texas, and in the Territory of New Mexico.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the tenth section of an act entitled "An act making appropriations for the legislative, executive, and judicial expenses of the government for the year ending thirtieth of June, eighteen hundred and fifty-eight," approved March third, eighteen hundred and fifty-seven, be, and the same is hereby, repealed, and the act entitled "An act creating a collection district in Texas and New Mexico," approved August second, eighteen hundred and fifty-four, is hereby revived and re-enacted: *Provided*, That the collector shall reside at El Paso, Texas, instead of Frontera.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the jurisdiction of the court of New Mexico shall extend over the citizens of El Paso County, Texas, only in cases not instituted by indictment, and the trial and proceedings for violations of the revenue laws in said district court of New Mexico shall be the same as in other district courts of the United States invested with admiralty powers; and this act shall take effect from and after its passage.

Approved March 3, 1863.

An Act to prevent and punish frauds upon the revenue, to provide for the more certain and speedy collection of claims in favor of the United States, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the first day of July, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, all invoices of goods, wares, and merchandise imported from any foreign country into the United States shall be made in triplicate, and signed by the person or persons

owning or shipping said goods, wares, or merchandise, if the same have actually been purchased, or by the manufacturer or owner thereof, if the same have been procured otherwise than by purchase, or by the duly authorized agent of such purchaser, manufacturer or owner; and said invoices shall, at or before the shipment thereof, be produced to the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States nearest the place of shipment for the use of the United States, and shall have endorsed thereon, when so produced, a declaration signed by said purchaser, manufacturer, owner, or agent, setting forth that said invoice is in all respects true; that it contains (if the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned therein are subject to ad valorem duty, and were obtained by purchase) a true and full statement of the time when and the place where the same were purchased, and the actual cost thereof, and of all charges thereon; and that no discounts, bounties, or drawbacks are contained in said invoice but such as have actually been allowed thereon; and when obtained in any other manner than by purchase, the actual market value thereof at the time and place when and where the same were procured or manufactured; and if subject to specific duty, the actual quantity thereof; and that no different invoice of the goods, wares, or merchandise, mentioned in the invoice so produced, has been or will be furnished to any one. If said goods, wares, or merchandise have been actually purchased, said declaration shall also contain a statement that the currency in which said invoice is made out is the currency which was actually paid for said goods, wares, or merchandise by the purchaser. And the person so producing said invoice shall at the same time declare to said consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent the port in the United States at which it is intended to make entry of said goods, wares or merchandise; whereupon the said consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent shall endorse upon each of said triplicates a certificate, under his hand and official seal, stating that said invoice has been produced to him, with the date of such production, and the name of the person by whom the same was produced, and the port in the United at which it shall be the declared intention to make entry of the goods, wares, or merchandise therein mentioned. And thereupon the said consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent shall deliver to the person producing the same one of said triplicates, to be used in making entry of said goods, wares, or merchandise; shall file another in his office, to be there carefully preserved; and shall, as soon as practicable, transmit the remaining one to the collector of the port of the United States at which it shall be declared to be the intention to make entry of said goods, wares, or merchandise. And no goods, wares, or merchandise imported into the United States from any foreign place or country after said first day of July, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, shall be admitted to an entry unless the invoice presented shall in all respects conform to the requirements hereinbefore mentioned, and shall have thereon the certificate of the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent hereinbefore specified, nor unless said invoice be verified at the time of making such entry by the oath or affirmation of the owner or consignee, or the authorized agent of the owner or consignee thereof, certifying that the said invoice and the declaration thereon are in all respects true, and were made by the person by whom the same purports to have been made, nor, except as hereinafter provided, unless the triplicate transmitted by said consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent to the collector shall have been received by

him. And if any such owner, consignee, or agent, of any goods, wares, or merchandise, shall knowingly make, or attempt to make, an entry thereof by means of any false invoice, or false certificate of a consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, or of any invoice which shall not contain a true statement of all the particulars hereinbefore required, or by means of any other false or fraudulent document or paper, or of any other false and fraudulent practice or appliance whatsoever, said goods, wares, and merchandise, or their value, shall be forfeited and disposed of as other forfeitures for violation of the revenue laws: *Provided*, That where, from a change of the destination of any such goods, wares, or merchandise, after the production of the invoice thereof to the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, as hereinbefore provided, or from other cause, the triplicate transmitted to the collector of the port to which such goods, wares, or merchandise were originally destined, shall not have been received at the port where the same actually arrive, and where it is desired to make entry thereof, said goods, wares, and merchandise may be admitted to an entry on the execution by the owner, consignee, or agent of a bond, with sufficient security, in double the amount of duty apparently due, conditioned for the payment of the duty which shall be found to be actually due thereon. And it shall be the duty of the collector of the port where such entry shall be made immediately to notify the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, to whom such invoice shall have been produced, to transmit to such collector a certified copy thereof; and it shall be the duty of such consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent to transmit the same accordingly without delay; and said duty shall not be finally liquidated until such triplicate, or a certified copy thereof, shall have been received: *Provided*, That such liquidation shall not be delayed longer than eighteen months from the time of making such entry: *And provided, further*, That when, from accident or other cause, it shall be impracticable for the person desiring to make entry of any goods, wares, or merchandise, to produce, at the time of making such entry, any invoice thereof, as hereinbefore required, it shall be lawful for the Secretary of the Treasury to authorize the entry of such goods, wares, or merchandise, upon such terms and in accordance with such general or special regulations as he may prescribe. And the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby invested with the like powers of remission in cases of forfeiture arising under this act, as in other cases of forfeiture under the revenue laws: *And provided, further*, That the provisions of this act shall not apply to countries where there is no consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States; nor shall anything herein contained be construed to require for goods imported under the reciprocity treaty with Great Britain, signed June fifth, eighteen hundred and fifty-four, any other consular certificate than is now required by law. And this act shall be construed only to modify and not repeal the act of March first, eighteen hundred and twenty-three, entitled "An act supplementary to and to amend an act entitled 'An act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage,' passed March second, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine, and for other purposes;" and the form of oath therein set forth shall be modified accordingly: *And provided, further*, That the provisions of this act shall not apply to invoices of goods, wares, or merchandise imported into any port of the United States from any place beyond Cape Horn or the Cape of Good Hope until the first day of January, eighteen hundred and sixty-four.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the Solicitor of the Treasury, under direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, shall take cognizance of all frauds upon the revenue, and shall exercise a general supervision over the measures for their prevention and detection, and for the prosecution of persons charged with the commission thereof; and it shall be the duty of the collectors of the several collection districts of the United States to report to him all seizures of goods, wares, or merchandise made by them, as soon as practicable after the same are made, with written statements of the facts upon which such seizures are based. And for the purpose of enabling the Solicitor of the Treasury to perform the duties hereby enjoined upon him, the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to employ not more than three clerks in addition to those now assigned to the office of the Solicitor by law, for such time and at such rates of compensation as he may deem for the public interest, and prescribe the compensation to be allowed to such clerks, not exceeding the amount now allowed to clerks of like class; said compensation shall be paid in the same manner as other expenses of collecting the revenue.

SEC. 3 *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall, by the exhibition of any false sample, or by means of any false representation or device, or by collusion with any officer of the revenue, or otherwise, knowingly effect, or aid in effecting, an entry of any goods, wares, or merchandise at less than the true weight or measure thereof, or upon a false classification thereof as to quality or value, or by the payment of less than the amount of duty legally due thereon, such person shall, upon conviction thereof, be fined in any sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, or be imprisoned not exceeding two years, or both, at the discretion of the court.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That if any officer of the revenue shall, by collusion with any importer or other person, or by means of any false weight or measure, or of any false classification as to quality or value of any goods, wares, or merchandise, or by any other means whatever, knowingly admit, or aid in admitting, to entry any such goods, wares, or merchandise, upon the payment of less than the amount of duty legally due thereon, or shall knowingly accept, from any person engaged in the importation of goods, wares, or merchandise into the United States, or interested as principal clerk, or agent in any such importation, or in the entry of any goods, wares, or merchandise, any fee, gratuity, or emolument whatsoever, such officer shall, on conviction thereof, be removed from office, and shall be fined in any sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, or be imprisoned not exceeding two years, at the discretion of the court.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the collectors of the several districts of the United States, in all cases of seizure of any goods, wares, or merchandise for violation of the revenue laws, the appraised value of which, in the district wherein such seizure shall be made, shall not exceed one thousand dollars, be, and they are hereby, authorized, subject to the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, to release such goods on payment of the appraised value thereof.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person who shall be engaged in the importation of goods, wares, or merchandise into the United States, or who shall be interested as principal, clerk, or agent, in the entry of any goods, wares, or merchandise, shall at any time make, or offer

to make, to any officer of the revenue, any gratuity or present of any money or other thing of value, such person shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in any sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, or be imprisoned not exceeding two years, at the discretion of the court.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever it shall be made to appear, by affidavit, to the satisfaction of the district judge of any district within the United States, that any fraud on the revenue has been at any time actually committed, or attempted, by any person or persons interested or in any way engaged in the importation or entry of merchandise at any port within the United States, said judge shall forthwith issue his warrant, directed to the collector of the port at which the merchandise in respect to which said alleged frauds have been committed or attempted has been imported or entered, directing said officer, or his duly authorized agents or assistants, to enter any place or premises where any invoices, books, or papers relating to such merchandise or fraud are deposited, and to take and carry the same away to be inspected; and any invoices, books, or papers so received or taken shall be retained by the officer receiving the same, for the use of the United States, so long as the retention thereof may be necessary, subject to the control and direction of the Solicitor of the Treasury.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall wilfully conceal or destroy any invoice, book, or paper relating to any merchandise liable to duty which has been or shall hereafter be imported into the United States from any foreign port or country, after an inspection thereof shall have been demanded by the collector of any collection district within the United States, or shall at any time conceal or destroy any such invoice, book, or paper, for the purpose of suppressing any evidence of fraud therein contained, such person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, upon conviction thereof, be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding two years, or both, at the discretion of the court.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That, for the purpose of realizing as much as may properly be done from unproductive lands, and other property of the United States acquired under judicial proceedings or otherwise in the collection of debts, the Solicitor of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, to rent, *for a period not exceeding three years*, or sell any such lands or other property *at public sale, after advertising the time, place, and conditions of such sale, for three months preceding the same in some newspaper published in the vicinity thereof*, in such manner and upon such terms as may, in his judgment, be most advantageous to the public interests.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That upon a report by a district attorney, or any special attorney or agent having charge of any claim in favor of the United States, showing in detail the condition of such claim, and the terms upon which the same may be compromised, and recommending that the same be compromised upon the terms so offered, and upon the recommendation of the Solicitor of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized to compromise such claim accordingly.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be taxed and paid to district attorneys two per centum upon all moneys collected or realized in any suit or proceeding arising under the revenue laws conducted by

them in which the United States is a party. The act in relation to costs, approved February twenty-sixth, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three, shall not apply to such allowances, and the same shall be in lieu of all costs and fees in such suit or proceedings.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That in all suits or proceedings against collectors or other officers of the revenue for any act done by them, or for the recovery of any money exacted by or paid to such officer and by him paid into the treasury of the United States, in the performance of his official duty, in which any district or other attorney shall be directed to appear on behalf of such officer by the Secretary or Solicitor of the Treasury, or by any other proper officer of the government, such attorney shall be allowed such compensation for his services therein as shall be certified by the court in which such suit or proceedings shall be had, to be reasonable and proper, and approved by the Secretary of the Treasury; and where a recovery shall be had in any such suit or proceedings, and the court shall certify that there was probable cause for the act done by the collector or other officer, or that he acted under the directions of the Secretary of the Treasury or other proper officer of the government, no execution shall issue against such collector or other officer, but the amount so recovered shall, upon final judgment, be provided for and paid out of the proper appropriation from the treasury.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That in all suits or proceedings against collectors or other officers of the revenue for any act done by them, or for the recovery of any money exacted by or paid to such officers, which shall have been paid into the Treasury of the United States, it shall be the duty of the respective district attorneys within the district where such suit or proceedings shall be had, unless otherwise instructed by the Secretary of the Treasury, to appear on behalf of such officers. And it shall be the duty of the several district attorneys, on the first of October of each year, to make returns to the Solicitor of the Treasury of the number of proceedings and suits commenced, pending, and determined within his district during the fiscal year next preceding the date of such returns, which returns shall show the date when such proceedings or suits in each case commenced; and if, for any reason, the determination of such proceedings or suits shall have been delayed or continued beyond the usual or reasonable period, such reasons shall be set forth, together with a statement of the measures taken by the district attorney to press such proceedings or suits to a close. And the returns hereby directed shall be embraced in a report by the Solicitor to the Secretary of the Treasury, to be by him annually transmitted to Congress, with a statement of all moneys received by the Solicitor, and by each district attorney under the provisions of this act.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the seventeenth section of the act entitled "An act increasing temporarily the duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and so much of the eighty-ninth section of the act entitled "An act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage," approved March second, seventeen hundred and ninety-nine, and so much of the third section of the act entitled "An act in addition to the act for the punishment of certain crimes against the United States," approved March twenty-six, eighteen hundred and four, as impose any limitation upon the commencement of any action or proceeding for the recovery of any fine,

penalty, or forfeiture, incurred by reason of the violation of any law of the United States relating to the importation or entry of goods, wares, or merchandise, are hereby repealed.

Approved March 3, 1863.

An Act to equalize and establish the compensation of the collectors of the customs on the northern, northeastern, and northwestern frontiers, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the collector of customs of each of the districts aforesaid shall render, with his accounts of the expenses incident to his office, a list of the clerks and other officers of the customs employed by him, stating the rate of compensation allowed to each, the duties they severally perform, and also an account of the sums paid for stationery, fuel, and all other office expenses, including office rent; for all of which expenses he shall submit an estimate each month in advance, and shall state the purposes for which any premises are used; and shall also render an accurate account of all fees and commissions collected by him.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the district of Sackett's Harbor be, and is hereby, annexed to the district of Cape Vincent, and the district so annexed is hereby abolished and constituted a part of the district to which it is annexed; and that the district of Niagara is hereby extended so as to include the entire county of Niagara to the channel of Tonawanda Creek; and that Lewiston, in the district of Niagara, is hereby discontinued as a port of entry, and that the port of entry for the district be, and is hereby, established at Suspension Bridge.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That Plattsburg, in the district of Champlain, is hereby discontinued as a port of entry, and that the port of entry for the district be, and is hereby, established at Rouse's Point, at which place the collector of the district shall reside, and a deputy collector shall reside at Plattsburg; and all vessels passing through Lake Champlain, from Canada, shall hereafter be required to report to the collector of customs at Rouse's Point.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That Michilimackinack, in the district of Michilimackinack, is hereby discontinued as a port of entry, and that the port of entry for the district be, and is hereby, established at Sault Ste. Marie, at which place the collector of the district shall reside, and a deputy collector shall reside at Michilimackinack.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

Approved March 3, 1863.

An Act to modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That all goods, wares, and merchandise now in public stores or bonded warehouses, on which duties are unpaid, having been in bond more than one year and less than three years, when the act entitled "An act increasing temporarily the duties

on imports, and for other purposes," approved July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, went into effect, may be entered for consumption, and the bonds cancelled, at any time before the first day of June next, on payment of the duties at the rates prescribed by the act aforesaid, and all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That section fourteen of an act entitled "An act increasing temporarily the duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, be, and the same hereby is, modified so as to allow cotton and raw silk as reeled from the cocoon, of the growth or produce of countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, to be exempt from any additional duty when imported from places this side of the Cape of Good Hope, for two years from and after the passage of this act.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That so much of an act entitled "An act to authorize protection to be given to citizens of the United States who may discover deposits of guano," approved August eighteenth, eighteen hundred and fifty-six, as prohibits the export thereof is hereby suspended in relation to all persons who have complied with the provisions of section second of said act for two years from and after July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-three.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the proviso in section fifteen of an act entitled "An act increasing temporarily the duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, shall be construed to include any ship, vessel, or steamer, to or from any port or place south of Mexico, down to and including Aspinwall and Panama.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That, in lieu of the duties now imposed by law, there shall be levied and collected upon printing paper unsized, used for books and newspapers exclusively, twenty per centum *ad valorem;* upon seedlac and sticklac the same duties now imposed upon gum shellac; upon polishing powders, of all descriptions, Frankfort black, and Berlin Chinese, fig and wash blue, twenty-five per centum *ad valorem.*

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passage of this act the duty on petroleum and coal illuminating oil, crude and not refined, when imported from foreign countries in a crude state, shall be twenty per centum *ad valorem*, and no more.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passage of this act there shall be allowed a drawback on foreign saltpetre, manufactured into gunpowder in the United States and exported therefrom, equal in amount to the duty paid on the foreign saltpetre from which it shall be manufactured, to be ascertained under such regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and no more: *Provided*, That ten per centum on the amount of all drawbacks so allowed shall be retained for the use of the United States by the collectors paying such drawbacks respectively.

Approved March 3, 1863.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

A FABLE FOR CLIENTS.

The following fable is from the Dutch of the Reverend J. De Liefde, whose charming productions, for both old and young, deserve to be better known among us. The subject is not a new one—from Æsop down there has been a succession of fables and facts, with vivid morals, on the folly of going to law unnecessarily. In spite of them, however, needless litigation has not yet quite died out, and we launch Mr. De Liefde's fable upon the sea of society, as a little buoy which may save a big shipwreck.

A fox and a goat were walking together on the main road. After having advanced a few yards, they saw a bag lying at the side of the hedge. "I wonder what there may be in that bag," said the goat.

"I'll see," said the fox, and putting his mouth to the string with which the bag was tied, he bit it through in a moment; then seizing the bottom of the bag with his teeth, he shook it and the most splendid carrots rolled out. "Those are for me," said the fox, "for I have opened the bag."

"You shan't touch them," answered the goat, "or I'll batter you with my horns till your ribs crack."

The fox looked at the large horns of the goat and showed his teeth. The goat, seeing the fox's teeth, thought within himself, "I don't like those sharp fellows." And the fox thought, "I don't believe my ribs would stand those horns." So they kept standing over the carrots, and looked at each other, but neither had the courage to touch the spoil.

After a pause, the fox said, "What's the use of our standing here? Let us see which of us is the stronger. Yonder are two heaps of stones. Take you one of them, and I'll take the other. He who first throws down his heap shall have the carrots."

"Very well," said the goat; so they went each to his heap.

The goat placed himself on his hind legs, and knocked with his horns till the ground resounded, but the heap was immovable.

"You don't hit hard enough," said the fox; "take a run at it."

The goat went a few steps back, and ran at the heap as violently as he could. Crack! Crack! and both his horns fell down to the ground. When the fox saw this, he began to dance upon his hind legs.

"Ah! my dear fellow," cried he, "the carrots are now for me!"

"Not yet," said the goat. "You haven't thrown down your heap, and if you touch the carrots before then, I'll fight you with the stumps that are left on my head."

The fox looked at the goat's stumps, and thought, "one of them is very sharp yet; he might rip up my sides." "Very well," he said, "I'll throw down my heap, it's a trifle to me." So he dug around with his forefeet till there was a large hole in the ground. The heap tottered and fell, but alas! it fell on the fox, and broke his left hind leg.

There they stood looking at one another with sad faces; the one with broken horns, the other with a broken leg.

"Jump at the carrots!" said the goat maliciously, "I now leave them to you."

"I can't," sighed the fox; "my leg pains me too much; you may take them."

"Very well," said the goat, and ran towards the bag. But, oh, dear! there was neither bag nor carrots, for during their quarrel a peasant had passed by, and picked up both.

"Alas!" cried the goat, "what fools we are! Had we divided the treasure in peace, I would have saved my horns, you your leg, and each of us would have had enough of carrots!"

THE ARMY ESTIMATES FOR GREAT BRITAIN.

The European *Times* says that the sum required from Parliament to maintain all branches of the army is £15,060,237. In this is included, for the first time, the cost of the disembodied militia, in accordance with the resolution carried by Sir G. Lewis in the House of Commons a short time since. If, for purposes of comparison we throw into the last estimates the sum voted for the disembodied militia during 1862–63, we shall find it swelling our total outlay to £16,060,350. It follows, therefore, that the sum by which our expenditure is actually reduced is £1,000,113. The total number of men, exclusive of those serving in India last year, was 152,403, of whom 7,264 belonged to the depots in India paid for out of the Indian revenues. The total number proposed to be maintained in the ensuing financial year is 148,242, including 9,349 forming the Indian depots. The gross reduction of numerical strength is a little over 4,000 men. But, inasmuch as there is an increase of more than 1,700 on the Indian depots, it follows that the actual reduction effected in that portion of the army for which Parliament provides is but little short of 6,000 men. This has been almost entirely effected in the regimental establishments of the infantry by taking 50 men off the strength of each battalion not serving in or proceeding to India, China, or New Zealand. Upon the artillery there is a decrease of some 200 men; but the engineers are augmented by about 350. These, with some economical changes on the staff, constitute all the alterations in the numbers of our military establishments at home and in the colonies. In India, however, the British forces, which were 75,899 in number last year, are now reduced to 72,676. Including, therefore, all the regular forces of Her Majesty, in addition to the native corps of India, will amount, in round numbers, to 221,000 men, as compared with 228,000 last year. If we add to the regular troops the auxiliary branches now grouped together, we shall make up the number of men available to bear arms to something over 500,000 men, taking the militia at 128,000, the yeomanry at 14,000, and the volunteers at 150,000. With a diminution of numerical strength so unimportant, and yet so large a reduction of expense, it is clear that the saving must have taken place upon materials. This is altogether the case. Indeed the pay and allowances of the men show an increase of £255,000, and this, coupled with the increased cost of the volunteers under the new arrangements, and £35,000 more to be expended on the militia, nearly make up the total increase, which is £524,000. As against this, however, we find some sweeping reductions. The cost of the manufacturing departments is lessened by £435,000, or just one-third

of the sum voted last year, while warlike stores are reduced by nearly £700,000, being set down at £838,000, instead of £1,537,000 as in the last estimates. The expenditure under the head of works and buildings is also brought down by £148,000, and these, with some minor savings, make the reductions for effective services amount to £1,532,000. Taking a small net increase on the votes for non-effective services, we find the gross increase to fall short of the gross reduction by £1,000,013, and by this sum the estimates of 1863–64 fall short of those by which they were preceded.

AN OPTICAL WONDER.

In 1858 CLAUDET, the eminent optical instrument maker, of London, startled Sir DAVID BREWSTER and other *savants* of England with the discovery that the half of a stereoscopic view could be made to present a solid (i. e. a stereoscopic) of feet. This discovery, says the *Journal of Commerce*, has been developed in something so brilliant and beautiful, that the pictures produced are as much beyond the ordinary photograph as that, in fidelity and beauty, is beyond the old fashioned engraving. In short, the delight which one person has in looking through the stereoscope, a thousand persons can have at once—so that there is sympathetic and social pleasure. The stereopticon, as it is called, takes the ordinary glass stereoscopic view, and by fine lenses and the most intense of artificial lights, throws and magnifies the miniature view upon a canvass, to such an extent that every one in a building as vast as the Academy of Music can see with distinctness each scene. There is no straining of the vision; there is no wearying of the eye as in the stereoscope, but one merely sits and gazes upon the sublime scenery of the Alps, the renowned old abbeys, the busy streets of London, Paris, Naples, and Grand Cairo; the grand, awe-striking remains of Egypt, and the solemn, instructive scenes of Palestine, in the same manner and with the same ease that we would look upon a real landscape from the deck of a Hudson River steamer. The distant and the rare are brought to us—or rather like the magic mat of the Arabian tale we are borne on swift and brilliant wings to the ends of the earth. The treasures of statuary art from the Louvre, the Vatican, and the Museo Borbonico are ours. Nothing seems so dream-like as the Apollo Belvidere, the Venus de Medici, and the *chefs d'œuvre* of the great Thorwalsden, which appear upon the scene in all their roundness and beauty.

It remained for our country to perfect this wonderful invention. Although the stereopticon was exhibited for a time in the Polytechnic Institute, and in the Hall of Illustration, Regent's Park, London, yet it did not advance beyond the first discovery. J. FALLON, Esq., of Lawrence, Mass., the chemist of the Pacific Mills, who has devoted thirty years to photology, imported from England one of these instruments for his own family. But under his hands it was developed into something so perfect that his friends desired that others might have the pleasure which he enjoyed. He has sent it forth on a charitable mission, and for churches, Sabbath schools, and sanitary commissions its charities can be counted by thousands. In Massachusetts, such men as Prof. AGASSIZ, LONGFELLOW, HILLARD, HOLMES, Rev. Dr. PARK, and many other leading representative men "assisted" with delight at many of the exhibitions, and the first two aided in delineating the scenes. During the past month this beautiful educator has been exhibiting in Brooklyn.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JUNE, 1863.

ENGLAND'S TAX SYSTEM.

THE tax system of England has in the present century undergone great changes, consequent upon the exigencies of the nation and the large experience which her statesmen have been able to bring to the adjustment of the revenues. A nation of small means and of little comparative magnitude, in a financial point of view, has far less opportunity of working out the great economical problems than one which, like England, is compact, populous, enormously wealthy, and the foremost manufacturing and commercial nation of the world. She has also the advantage that her internal and external policy turn almost altogether on financial and commercial questions. Her colonial policy, her foreign policy, her commercial system, and her financial plans hinge upon the promotion of her material welfare. The extension and growth of her present business, with the means of its future expansion are the elements of her governmental policy. Her statesmen of all parties emulate each other in the pursuit of that object, and all parties, whether in or out of power, shape their course by such considerations. It is in this sense that the great NAPOLEON described her as "a nation of shop-keepers." If he had called her government "the great mercantile firm of the world," he would have been nearer the mark. Her colonial policy embraces forty-five colonies, spread over the earth, each of which she hopes will become, and manages with the sole idea that it may become, the germ of an empire, useing the English language and English goods long ages to come. Even the policy of holding or giving up those colonies depends entirely upon how it will affect the future market for goods. If it is thought that they will be better customers when independent, she will, as in the case of the Canadas a few years since, tell them to go or stay, as they please. In a word, everything is made to bend to the one idea of commercial prosperity.

The few years that have elapsed since the masses were freed from actual servitude have sufficed to show the landed gentry, the aristocracy, and the government, that the more the industry and trade of the people prospers the greater are the revenues from lands, from rents, and from taxes. The power of the nation and the wealth and splendor of the nobles grow with the successful industry of the people. Freedom, too, was necessary that this prosperity might be developed, and especially is this true of the Anglo-Saxon race. The hope of reward stimulates it to exertion; while with the Doric races indolence is their only charm in liberty. When, therefore, feudal servitude gradually gave way to free industry in England, and broad tracts of land were rescued from the grasp of monasteries, when industry was encouraged and the prosperity of the people sought, wealth began to flow from the working many up through land owners into the treasury. The funding system, introduced by WILLIAM, drew into the service of the state a portion of the surplus capital of the country. From that time the national wealth continued to increase, and with it the amount of taxes required to liquidate the interest on the public debt. The property of the country was, however, hampered by reason of the crude ideas entertained by the governing classes on economical questions. They all recognized the importance of seeking the prosperity of the people, but it was supposed it might be encouraged by protection, promoted by prohibition, stimulated by special privileges, and improved by restriction. HENRY VIII. freed one of his slaves—a tailor—for a sum of money, and encouraged the making of cloth by preventing wool growers from selling to any but manufacturers in their neighborhood. Other sovereigns, especially ELIZABETH, farmed out all sorts of privileges for sums of money. These and multitudes of enactments lingered, some of them, down to within thirty years, while the light was slowly but irresistibly making its way into the legislative halls. The frightful expenditures undertaken at the close of the last century to maintain English ocean supremacy, and which were continued through twenty-four years, produced the most extensive system of taxation the world ever knew. The ability to bear that taxation was based entirely upon the fact that steam, with a multitude of automaton assistants, stepped forward to do more productive labor than the whole people of England had been before capable of. The isolated position of England kept her out of the arena of combat, while her navies commanded the ocean and kept open every market of the world for the sale of her new machine goods at monopoly prices. This conferred great ability to pay taxes, which reached the enormous sum of $350,000,000 per annum upon 11,000,000 persons.

With the peace came a new state of affairs. The monopoly of machines and markets was no longer possible, neither was the continuance of paper practicable. Specie prices, exposed to sharp foreign competitors, became the rule, causing terrible distress. Vainly did England strive to maintain her position by stringent laws against the export of machines or any parts of them, against the export of wool or other raw materials, and by duties protecting every interest which was supposed to be dying in consequence of the importation of foreign competing goods. The conviction, however, gradually forced itself upon the governing classes that, for England to keep her markets, she must manufacture and transport at least as cheap as other people, and that to do so every burden must be removed from the cost of goods and from every productive interest. In

1828 the prohibition on the exports of machines, wool, and other articles were remitted. Navigation laws were modified in 1816, and under Mr. HUSKISON some progress was made in a free trade direction by reciprocal treaties. The heavy taxes, however, failed to respond to the public wants, and additional taxes failed to increase the revenue. The nation was like an overladen ship that would no longer respond to the helm. The short harvests of 1836–7 produced a crisis. The annual deficits had been large, and the minister added ten per cent to all duties, resulting only in a larger deficit than ever. It was then that Sir ROBERT PEEL inaugurated the policy which has gone on progressively developing an unequalled degree of national prosperity. The policy was to remove all those taxes and restrictions which interfered with the free and prompt interchange of goods, since it is easily understood that the more promptly available are the products of industry the more production is encouraged. The most important of these was food. Provisions were prohibited and corn highly taxed. By removing these burdens food would be cheaper and all wages would be practically higher, since for the same money the laborer could procure more necessaries. A long list of articles—partly food and partly materials of manufacture—were subjected to gradual modifications. The result was, that while the manufacturer paid no more money for wages and much less for materials, he could produce a cheaper article for export, and at the same time the decline in the price of necessaries was equivalent to a rise in the wages of the workers. In other words, the same amount of labor enabled the worker to consume a larger amount of food and manufactures, and the shipper to compete more successfully with foreign rivals in third markets. The radical change produced in the government policy may be illustrated by the fact that in in 1842 Sir ROBERT PEEL found 1,052 articles subject to customs duties. There are now but 48 articles charged with duties, and the bulk of the revenue is raised from 15 only. The customs revenue in 1842, from 1,052 articles, was £23,515,374, and in 1862, £23,484,167, from 48 articles, or as follows:

	Articles taxed.	Revenue.	Value of exports.
1842.....	1,052	£23,515,374	£47,381,023
1862.....	48	23,484,167	124,137,812

Nothing can more clearly demonstrate the vast success of the policy inaugurated by Sir ROBERT PEEL, and continued by Mr. GLADSTONE, than these few figures.

The following table gives the revenues of Great Britain after twenty years of free trade:

REVENUES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

	1842. 1,052 articles.	1862. 48 articles.
Brandy.....	£1,329,081	£928,716
Rum.....	1,063,086	1,720,593
Wine.....	1,720,732	1,104,476
Sugar and molasses.....	5,308,374	6,383,289
Tea.....	3,973,667	5,516,584
Coffee.....	887,721	439,078
Tobacco.....	3,550,824	5,596,211
Currants and raisins.....	410,826	316,204
Grain.....	568,340	800,896

	1842. 1,052 articles.	1862. 48 articles.
Pepper	.....	103,344
Timber	1,500,310	241,303
Bills of lading	127,890	220,259
One thousand other articles	3,074,517	112,214
Total	£23,515,374	£23,484,167
EXCISE.		
Spirits	5,178,173	9,618,219
Malt	5,262,362	5,866,302
Hops	69,054	324,854
Paper	583,543	349,269
Licenses, post-horses, etc	1,236,344	1,500,613
Game	130,724	140,484
Carriages	511,579	215,606
Railways	.....	372,178
Soap, glass, brick erections, etc	2,219,586	repealed
Other articles	1,405,782	112,201
Total	£16,602,847	£18,301,328
STAMPS.		
Deeds	1,665,296	1,336,152
Legacies	2,132,471	3,573,658
Insurance	1,248,638	1,870,069
Bills and notes	749,310	552,216
Newspapers	377,468	128,127
Receipts	174,745	423,954
Other stamps	.....	706,508
Total	£6,347,928	£8,540,654
TAXES.		
Lands, houses, etc	1,214,430	1,961,607
Servants	215,843	201,347
Horses	414,675	368,825
Carriages	464,591	332,749
Dogs	172,190	196,527
Ten per cent	311,351	1,432
Other taxes repealed	1,922,267	73,375
Total	£4,715,353	£3,135,862
Incomes	.....	10,471,208
Post-office	1,495,540	3,552,696
Crown lands	543,118	417,408
Other "	.....	1,747,534
Total	£2,038,658	£16,219,844
Grand total	£53,697,100	£69,900,857

In 1842 many articles were made free and many prohibitions removed; but in 1845 there were still 813 articles charged with customs duties. Of these, however, 430 were made free in that year, being such as either directly or indirectly entered into manufactures. Among the articles was staves, which were imported largely from the United States, for the use of fisheries in England and barrels and hogsheads in the British West Indies. These were required to be of a certain length in order that they might not be used for furniture, and at the same time the duties on various woods were reduced to cheapen cabinet wares and buildings. Cotton paid 12 per cent duty, and was made free. The auction duties were removed, because they were a direct hindrance to the transfer of property. It was shown that property was first put up at auction and bought in to avoid the duty, and was then sold privately to the highest bidder. In one year £45,232,000 worth of property was put up at auction, and only £3,000,000 sold. The duty on glass was removed, because it was a most intolerable burden upon the makers; the window duty was removed because it was tax on the air and light of heaven and destructive of health, and that on soap was recognized as a tax on cleanliness. The whole skill and science of the government was directed to the single object of getting as much revenue as possible, and at the same time interfering in the smallest degree with production and interchange. The returns of English finances show that this object was attained to a very considerable extent, since the exports of English products have gone on increasing in a remarkable degree, while the actual taxes have yielded a much larger amount than the estimates at that time warranted. The net estimated loss from the amount of customs taxes removed under Sir Robert Peel's bill was £12,646,736, yet the result showed no loss in revenue. The reduction of taxes was also accompanied by a great reduction in the expense of collecting them, and from 1842 to 1862 the whole revenue of the country increased from £53,697,160 to £69,904,857.

While the removal of such a cloud of taxes from the customs was brought about, the excise and internal taxes were subjected to a revision equally extensive, and with the same results. The proof of that prosperity is not alone manifest in the immense increase in the value of the annual exports, but in the progress of the income tax, which was imposed as a compensation for loss which it was supposed the revenue would sustain by the modification of the customs.

The income tax was imposed early in the century as a war tax, and the framework of the tax was renewed by Sir Robert Peel in 1842, in order to obtain from property the money which he appropriated to the reduction of duties. The tax was levied on incomes under five schedules, from each of which Sir Robert Peel deducted incomes under £150 or $726. These schedules were as follows:

	1814.	1842.	Estimated rev.
A. Rent of land.....	£51,194,666	£54,600,000	£1,600,000
B. Occupation of land ...	38,396,000	26,000,000	150,000
C. Stocks, public & private	30,000,000	22,400,000	646,000
D. Profits on trades & prof.	38,310,000	42,000 000	1,220,000
E. Public officers salaries.	11,744,000	5,250,000	155,000
Total.....	£178,580,000	£150,250,000	£3,771,000

The estimated tax was at the rate of 7d. in the £, and the actual yield was £5,608,548 in 1843, and continued to £5,869,826 in 1853. In that year the tax was extended to incomes between £100 and £150, at 5d. in the £; and the whole tax was in the same year extended to Ireland. Its product was £7,133,039 in 1854. The exigencies of the Russian war then required an increased revenue, which was effected by doubling the tax. The progress of the tax was as follows:

TABLE SHOWING THE AMOUNT OF DUTY CHARGED UNDER THE INCOME TAX IN EACH YEAR, SINCE ITS IMPOSITION IN 1842, DISTINGUISHING THE RATE OF DUTY IN EACH YEAR.

	Rate of duty on incomes above £150.*	Amount of duty charged.
1843	7d. in the £	£5,608,548
1844	" "	5,504,157
1845	" "	5,476,497
1846	" "	5,711,224
1847	" "	5,791,067
1848	" "	5,834,795
1849	" "	5,793,543
1850	" "	5,729,577
1851	" "	5,754,447
1852	" "	5,845,719
1853	" "	5,869,826

	Incomes of £100 and under £150.	Incomes of £150 and upwards.	
1854	5d. in the £	7d. in the £	7,133,039
1855	10d. "	1s. 2d "	14,358,090
1856	11½d. "	1s. 4d. "	16,545,508
1857	11½d. "	1s. 4d. "	16,915,332
1858	5d. "	7d. "	7,905,525
1859	5d. "	5d. "	5,758,905
1860	6½d. "	9d. "	10,424,887
1861	10d. "	7d. "	10,923,816
1862	9d. "	6d. "	10,365,000
			£163,249,502

The following table appended to the report of the Parliamentary Committee gives the product of each penny of duty under each schedule.

AMOUNT PRODUCED FROM EACH 1D. OF DUTY.

	Schedule A.	Schedule B.	Schedule C.	Schedule D.	Schedule E.	Total.
1843	£357,281	£95,588	£116,140	£240,264	£39,740	£849,014
1844	353,122	93,804	113,671	225,934	46,676	833,207
1845	355,176	92,562	109,699	225,538	45,661	828,636
1846	369,592	94,838	106,375	245,346	47,156	863,307
1847	372,117	92,588	108,086	252,631	48,166	873,588
1848	379,041	91,954	108,705	250,623	49,195	879,518
1849	393,509	94,929	109,962	226,372	50,345	875,108
1850	389,679	93,280	109,428	224,409	48,353	865,149

* From April 5, 1853, incomes between £100 and £150 were made subject to tax; from the same date the tax was also extended to Ireland.

	Schedule A.	Schedule B.	Schedule C.	Schedule D.	Schedule E.	Total.
1851....	389,398	91,638	109,932	229,424	47,488	867,880
1852....	395,288	88,692	109,663	238,392	47,411	879,446
1853....	397,500	87,184	107,029	242,852	47,571	882,136
1854....	474,653	122,418	114,238	330,986	59,039	1,101,334
1855....	481,413	121,452	109,114	332,677	63,709	1,108,365
1856....	485,554	118,989	107,410	329,277	72,544	1,113,774
1857....	491,458	118,705	118,103	334,987	75,102	1,138,355
1858....	530,292	130,344	122,980	353,786	79,714	1,217,140
1859....	532,559	129,122	122,278	353,984	78,397	1,216,340
1860....	563,371	129,906	123,755	371,197	78,535	1,239,764

These tables indicate the power of the tax, and also the progress of each kind of property in the schedules. Thus, under schedule A the rent of land increased £40,000 from 1843 to 1853, or 11 per cent, while the occupation of land decreased £7,000, or 8 per cent. There was a decrease also in the revenue from stocks, and profits on trade barely held their own. Hence the whole increase seems to have been from the rent of land. In 1854, the incomes between £100 and £150 were added at the rate of 5d. in the £, and also those of Ireland. The result was a rise of 23 per cent in the amount realized. The same rate of tax in 1858 produced £772,000 more revenue. The exigencies of the Russian war caused numerous changes in the rate, but always with success. Still, however, the rents from land were the most reliable tax, the amount of which shows that the rents have increased in face of the large imports of free food. The reductions in the duty on some articles of this description have been as follows:

	1842.	1862.
Grain.....	Prohibited.	Free.
Animals.....	"	"
Provisions.....	"	"
Butter.....	£1 1s. per cwt.	"
Cheese.....	11s. per cwt.	"
Coffee	8⅓d. per lb.	3d.
Sugar	25s. 2d. per cwt.	12s. 8d.

In spite of these reductions, and the consequent great increase in the import of these articles, the rents have, as stated above, also increased. It will be seen from the following table also, that the stamps and income tax yield together £19,000,000, or, in round numbers, $95,000,000 levied upon 30,000,000 of the most wealthy people in the world; of the stamps, one-fourth is derived from a legacy duty, on the descent, by death, of all the property in Great Britain. The income tax gives, it appears, $50,000,000 per annum, and is levied at the rate of 4 per cent on incomes from $500 to $750 per annum, and 3 per cent on all over $750 per annum. It would seem from the return that the low incomes are one-fourth of the large ones, or about one-fifth of the whole tax. The tax levied in 1859 was 2 per cent on all incomes, and the result was £5,758,905, equal to a gross income of £286,000,000, against £178,580,000 in 1814, showing an increase of £108,000,000 in forty-five years.

Since 1853, the imports, exports, and national revenue have been as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.	National revenue.	Income tax.	Other sources.
1854.	£152,389,053	£97,184,726	£54,774,905	£7,133,039	£47,641,866
1855.	143,542,850	95,688,085	59,496,154	14,358,090	45,138,064
1856.	172,544,154	115,826,948	65,704,491	16,465,508	49,158,984
1857.	187,844,441	122,066,107	72,334,062	16,915,332	55,418,730
1858.	164,583,832	116,608,756	67,881,513	7,905,525	59,975,988
1859.	179,182,355	130,411,529	65,477,284	5,758,905	59,718,389
1860.	210,530,873	135,891,227	71,089,669	10,424,887	60,664,782
1861.	217,351,881	125,115,133	70,283,674	10,923,816	59,359,858

The income tax has, as we have before stated, been very effective in raising the revenue at periods of unexpected and unusual demands, like that of the Russian war or the panic of 1857; but the large general prosperity of the country has caused the indirect taxes to rise steadily in amount, notwithstanding the reductions in rates which they have undergone. The ministry of Sir ROBERT PEEL insisted strongly upon the great benefit that was to be realized from the removal of those inquisitorial taxes which were imposed upon many branches of home manufacture, and which greatly retarded the productive power of the country. The results have fully justified the views then held, since, by the removal of them, a degree of prosperity has been reached which enables all taxes to be collected with great facility. The removal of duties on various articles of general consumption has not however had the effect in all cases which was anticipated. Thus, the reduction in the duties on coffee did not have the effect of largely increasing the imports of that article, but the consumption of sugar and tea was immensely promoted by the reduction of the tax upon them. This is because a large and active demand for the latter exists, while the English public are comparatively indifferent to coffee. That article which the people *will* have will always bear the greatest tax. Tobacco pays 75 cents per pound, with an increasing consumption, while cocoa is scarcely consumed at all at any cost. In Spain and Portugal, on the other hand, the heaviest taxed article is cocoa, and it is the article of most general consumption.

The want of cotton as a raw material in England is being seriously felt, since it is a vehicle through which the sale of a large amount of English labor is effected, and without which their labor not only remains unproductive, but becomes a burden upon the other interests, and at the same time rapidly deteriorates, since unemployed persons lose their industrial habits and the State thereby suffers permanently.

While the revenue of the United Kingdom has been thus improved by reason of the general prosperity of the nation, and the care and skill with which its fiscal resources have been administered, it remains a fact that during the forty-eight years which have elapsed since the wars which created the debt were closed, there has been no progress made towards diminishing the national debt. The efforts of each succeeding ministry have been directed to the payment of the interest and to meet the annual cost of government, while unlooked-for events, like the China war, the famine in Ireland, and the emancipation in the West Indies add continually to the principal of the funded debt, which stood at £784,420,007 in 1861, or $3,795,000,000. The revenues at present are in so prosperous a condition that Mr. GLADSTONE has proposed further remissions of taxes. The surplus is estimated at £3,874,000; this he proposes to apply—£191,000 to the remission of certain charges on bills of lading; £1,650,000 to a

reduction of tea duty from 1s. 5d. per pound to 1s. per pound, and £2,750,000 to a reduction of income duty, by exempting £60 per annum from all incomes under £200, and to take 2s. from the £ from the tax, making it uniform upon all incomes.

The United States are now unhappily compelled, by circumstances to follow the English example of high taxes. The country is no doubt able to bear the load, but it ought to have the benefit of English experience, in laying that load upon the people, so that it may be most easily borne. If England is able to draw her revenue and not impair the productive powers of the country, the United States Government ought to be guided by the same principle. It is evident that the same rules will not in all cases apply here as in England, but the same general principle should be observed. Thus, we have seen in the above table, that the rent of land yields the largest returns in England. In the United States the same state of things does not exist. The land is largely owned by the occupiers. The most prolific source of the English income tax would, therefore, here fail. Exclusive of the income tax, one-third of the whole English revenue is derived from *strong drink*, viz.: £19,563,160 out of £59,429,649, and one-fourth the remainder is from sugar and tobacco, which are United States products. In the whole list there are no taxes upon objects of English industry, or the materials of their production. Yet her tax system began with taxes upon all those articles, like the United States tax law now in operation, and which is reported as yielding "alarmingly below the estimates." The stamp taxes will be found to yield better, because they are so easily collected, and require no vexatious local visitations. A large portion of the English stamp revenues are from legacies. It will require sometime to develop those taxes here, but they are the most unexceptionable taxes that can be levied. Then, too, there is no reason why strong drink should not be taxed as high here as in England. The quantity consumed is as follows:

Domestic .....gallons	90,000,000
Beer.....	100,000,000
Imported	4,000,000
Total.....	194,000,000

A tax of 50 cents per gallon would give a sum equal to the amount derived from the same articles in England. The duty on the imported liquors is $1 to $2 per gallon, and there is no reason why the whole should not pay at the same rate. Tobacco ought also to pay its $30,000,000 as in England, and could be made to do so without detriment to national interests. In a word, there can be no difficulty in raising money enough by taxation for the purposes of government, if those taxes are only properly laid, and the right principles observed in regulating them.

COMMERCIAL LAW. No. 3.

THE CONSIDERATION FOR AN AGREEMENT.

OF THE NEED OF A CONSIDERATION.

It is an ancient and well-established rule of the common law of England and of this country, that no promise can be enforced at law, unless it rests upon a *consideration*. If it do not, it is called a *nudum pactum*, by which words are meant a naked bargain, or, as it is sometimes called, in English words made out of the Latin, a nude pact; and the promisor, even if he admits his promise, is under no legal obligation to perform it.

There are two exceptions to this rule. One is when the promise is made by a sealed instrument, or deed; (every written instrument which is sealed is a deed.) Here the law is said to imply a consideration; the meaning of which is that it does not require that any consideration should be proved. The seal itself is said to be a consideration, or to import a consideration.

The second exception relates to negotiable paper; and is an instance in which the law-merchant has materially qualified the common law. We shall speak more fully of this exception when we treat of negotiable paper.

The word "consideration," as it is used in this rule, has a peculiar and technical meaning. It denotes some substantial cause for the promise. This cause must be one of two things; either a benefit to the promisor, or else an injury or loss to the promisee sustained by him at the instance and request of the promisor. Thus, if A promises B to pay him a thousand dollars in three months, and even promises this in writing, the promise is worthless in law, if A makes it as a merely voluntary promise, without consideration. But if B, or anybody for him, gives to A to-day a thousand dollars in goods or money, and this was the ground and cause of the promise, then it is enforceable. And if A got nothing for his promise, but B, at the request of A, gave the same goods or money to C, this would be an equally good consideration, and the promise would be equally valid in law.

This rule sometimes operates harshly and unjustly, and permits promisors to break their word under circumstances calling strongly for its fulfilment. Courts have been led, perhaps, by this, to moderate the rule, and to say that the consideration is sufficient if it be a substantial one, although it be not an adequate one. This is the unquestionable rule now, and it is sometimes carried very far. In one case an American court refused to inquire into the *adequacy* of the consideration—or whether it was *equal* to the promise *made* upon it—and said, if there was the *smallest spark* of consideration it was enough, if the contract was fairly made with a full understanding of all the material facts. Still, there must be some.

WHAT ARE SUFFICIENT CONSIDERATIONS.

The law detests litigation; and therefore considers anything a sufficient consideration which arrests and suspends or terminates litigation. Thus

the compromise, or forbearance, or reference to arbitration, or any similar settlement, of a suit, or of a claim, is a good consideration for a promise founded upon it. And it is no defence to a suit on this promise, to show that the claim or suit thus disposed of would probably have been found to have no foundation or substance. If the claim or suit be a mere pretence, or oppression, and have no reality whatever, and there is no rational possibility of enforcing it, then indeed it is nothing, and any settlement of it is also nothing, and a promise founded upon such settlement rests upon no consideration. But if there be any honest claim, which he who advances it believes to be well grounded, and which within a rational possibility may be so, this is enough; the court will not go on and try the validity of the claim or of the suit in order to test the validity of a promise which rests upon its settlement; for the very purpose for which it favors this settlement is the avoidance of all necessity of investigating the claim by litigation. But for reasons of public policy, no promise can be enforced of which the consideration was the discontinuance of criminal proceedings, or of any in which the public are interested.

If any work or service is rendered to one, or for one, and he requested the same, it is a good consideration for a promise of payment; and not only so, but the law will imply the promise, that is, will suppose that he has made it, and he may be sued upon it in the same way as if he had made it, and will not be permitted to deny it. The rule is the same as to goods, or property of any kind, delivered to any one at his request.

No person can make another his debtor against that other's will, by a voluntary offer of work, or service, or money, or goods. But if that other accept what is thus offered, and retain the benefit of it, the law will, generally, imply or presume that it was offered at the request of that other party, and will also imply his promise to pay for it, and will enforce the promise; unless it is apparent, or is shown, that it was offered and received as a mere gift.

A promise is a good consideration for a promise; and it is one which frequently occurs in fact. But it is said that the promises must be mutual; and sometimes questions of this sort have arisen; if A promises to live with B two years, for the purpose of learning a certain trade, but B makes no express promise to teach, and A leaves at the end of one year, it has been said that B cannot recover damages, because there was no consideration for A's promise, inasmuch as B made no promise. But we should rather say in such cases, that, if A performed his promise, he might have an action against B on his constructive or implied promise to teach; and that this constructive or implied promise to teach was a sufficient consideration for A's promise to stay with B.

So, if A says to B, "If you will deliver goods to C, I will pay for them," although there is no obligation upon B to deliver the goods, and therefore no mutuality in the contract, yet, if he does deliver them, he furnishes a consideration for the agreement, and may enforce it against A. There is also an exception to this requirement of mutuality in the case of contracts between infants and persons of full age. For though the infant may avoid his contract, the adult is bound, as we said in speaking of infants.

An agreement by two or more parties to refer disputes or claims between them to arbitration, is not binding upon any of the parties unless all have entered into it.

This principle, that a promise is a good consideration for a promise, has

been sometimes applied to subscription papers; all who sign them being held on the ground that the promise of each is a good consideration for the promises of the rest. But they are not often promises to each other; being generally the promises of all the subscribers to some third party, who makes no promise. The law on the subject of these subscription papers, and of all voluntary promises of contribution, is as yet somewhat unsettled, the cases not being reconcilable. The prevailing rule, we think, however, is this: no such promises are binding, unless something is paid for them, or unless some party for whose benefit they are made—and this party may be one or more of the subscribers—at the request, express or implied, of the promisors, and on the faith of the subscriptions, incurs actual expense or loss, or enters into valid contracts with other parties which will occasion expense or loss. As the objection to these promises is the want of consideration, it may perhaps be cured by a seal to each name, or by one seal which all the parties agree to consider the seal of each.

It is to be regretted that the law does not regard a merely moral consideration as a sufficient legal consideration; but so it is. Thus, it has been held in this country, that a note given by a father to a party who had given needful medicines, food, and shelter to his sick son, who was of full age, was void in law, because there was no legal consideration. And the same doctrine was applied where a son made a similar promise for food and support to his aged father. If, in either case, the promise had been made before the food or other articles were supplied, or even a request made *before* the supply by the party promising *afterwards*, then the supply of the food and support would have been a good consideration. But they had all been supplied before any request or promise, and nothing was left but the moral obligation of a father to compensate one who had supported his son, or of a son to support his father; and this the law does not deem sufficient to make even an express promise enforceable at law.

OF ILLEGAL CONSIDERATIONS.

If the whole of a consideration, or if any part of the consideration of an entire and indivisible promise, be illegal, the promise founded upon it is void. Thus, where a note was given in part for the compounding of penalties and suppressing of criminal prosecutions, it was held to be wholly void and uncollectable. And where a part of the consideration of a note was spirituous liquors, sold by the payee in violation of the statute, such note was held to be wholly void. But if the consideration consists of separable parts, and the promise consists of corresponding separable parts, which can be apportioned and applied, part to part, then each illegality will affect only the promise resting on it; for in fact there are many considerations and many promises.

If the consideration be entire and wholly legal, and the promise consists of separable parts, one legal and the other illegal, the promisee can enforce that part which is legal.

When a law provides a penalty for an act, that act is held to be illegal, although it is not expressly prohibited.

OF IMPOSSIBLE CONSIDERATIONS.

No contract or promise can be enforced by him who knew that the performance of it was wholly impossible; and therefore a consideration which

is obviously and certainly impossible is not sufficient in law to sustain a promise. But if one makes a promise, he cannot always defend himself when sued for non-performance by showing that performance was impossible; for it may be his own fault, or his personal misfortune, that he cannot perform it. He had no right to make such a promise, and must respond in damages; or if he had a right to make it in the expectation of performance, and this has become impossible subsequently—as by loss of property, for example—this is his misfortune, and no answer to a suit on the promise. There are, however, obviously, promises or contracts, which, from their very nature, must be construed as if the promisor had said, "I will do so and so, if I can." For example, if A promises to work for B one year, at $20 a month, and at the end of six months is wholly disabled by sickness, he is not liable to an action by B for breach of his contract; and there is authority and good reason for saying that he can recover his pay for the time that he has spent in B's service. A mere want of money, or a pecuniary impossibility, is not regarded by the law as an impossibility.

OF FAILURE OF CONSIDERATION.

If a promise be made upon a consideration which is apparently valuable and sufficient, but which turns out to be nothing; or if the consideration was originally good, but becomes wholly valueless before part performance on either side, there is an end of the contract, as the promise cannot be enforced. And if money were paid on such a consideration, it can be recovered back. But only the sum paid can be so recovered, without any increase or addition as compensation for the plaintiff's loss and disappointment, if there were no fraud or oppression.

If the failure of consideration be partial only, leaving a substantial, though far less valuable, consideration behind, this may still be a sufficient foundation for the promise, if that be entire. The promisor may then be sued on the promise; but he will then be entitled, by deduction, set off, or in some other proper way, to due allowance or indemnity for whatever loss he may sustain as to the other parts of the bargain, or as to the whole transaction, from the partial failure of the consideration. Thus, if he promised so much money for work done in such a way, or as the price of a thing to be made and sold to him, if no work is done, or the thing is not made or sold, there is an end of the promise, because the consideration has failed. But if the work was done, but not as it should have been, or the thing made and sold, but not what it should have been, and the promisor accepted the work or the thing, he may now show that the consideration for his promise has partially failed, and may have a proportionate reduction in his promise, or in the amount he must pay. And if the promise be itself separable into parts, and a distinct part or proportion of the consideration failed, to which part some distinct part or proportion of the promise could be applied, that part cannot be enforced, although the residue of the promise may be.

If A agrees with B to work for him one year, or any stated time, for so much a month, or so much for the whole time, and, after working a part of the time, leaves B without good cause, the question arises whether A can recover anything from B for the service he has rendered; and at this time the question must be considered as somewhat unsettled at law. It is universally conceded that he cannot *on the contract*, because that is *entire*, and is broken by A, and therefore A has no claim under it. And it is the an-

cient and still prevailing rule, that A can recover nothing in any form or way. It has, however, been held in New Hampshire, that A can still recover whatever his services are worth, B having the right to set off or deduct the amount of any damage he may have sustained from A's breach of the contract. We think this view just and reasonable, although it has not been supported by adjudication in other States. If A agrees to sell to B five hundred barrels of flour at a certain price, and, after delivering one-half, refuses to deliver any more, B can certainly return that half, and pay A nothing. But if B chooses to retain that half, or if he has so disposed of or lost it that he cannot return it, he must, generally at least, pay what it is worth, deducting all that he loses by the breach of the contract. And this case we think analogous to that of a broken contract of service; but B's liability to pay, even in the case supposed as to goods, has been denied in New York.

A difficulty sometimes arises where A, at the request of B, undertakes to do something for B, for which he is to be paid a certain price; and in doing it he departs materially from the directions of B and from his own undertaking. What are now the rights of the parties? This question arises most frequently in building-contracts, in which there is perhaps usually some departure from the original undertaking. The general rules are these. If B assent to the alteration, it is the same thing as if it were a part of the original contract. He may assent expressly, by word or in writing; or constructively, by seeing the work, and approving it as it goes on, or being silent; for silence under such circumstances would generally be equivalent to an approval. But if the change be one which B had a right, either from the nature of the change, or the appearance of it, or A's language respecting it, to suppose would add nothing to the cost, then no promise to pay an increased price would be inferred from either an express or tacit approval. Generally, as we have seen, if A does or makes what B did not order or request, B can refuse to accept it, and, if he refuses, will not then be held to pay for it. But if he accepts it, he must pay for it. This consequence results, however, only from a voluntary acceptance. For if A choose, without any request from B, to add something to B's house, or make some alteration in it, which being done cannot be undone or taken away without detriment to the house, B may hold it, and yet not be liable to pay for it; and A has no right to take it away, unless he can do so without inflicting any injury whatever on B. This rule would apply whether the addition or alteration were larger or smaller.

It is sometimes provided in building-contracts that B shall pay for no alteration or addition, unless previously ordered by him in writing. But if there be such provision, B would be liable for any alteration or addition he ordered in any way, or voluntarily accepted.

So it is sometimes agreed that any additions or alterations shall be paid for at the same rate as the work contracted for. But we think that the law would imply this agreement if the parties did not make it expressly, although this point is not well settled.

OF THE RIGHTS OF ONE WHO IS A STRANGER TO THE CONSIDERATION.

Formerly it was held that no one who was a stranger to the consideration could enforce a promise resting upon it. But this rule has been considerably relaxed, at least in this country. Thus, if A pays to B a con-

sideration, and B thereupon promises to pay C a sum of money, it has been held that C may sue B upon this promise, whether the promise were made to A or to C. So where B gave to the lessee of certain premises a written promise to take the lease and pay to A, the lessor, the rent, with the taxes, according to the terms of the lease; and B afterwards entered into possession of the premises, and occupied them with the knowledge of A, it was held that A might recover rent from B on this promise. So if A, B, and C give a consideration jointly to D, whereupon D makes a promise to A, or B, or C, or any two of them, an action can be maintained on the promise by the party to whom it is given.

OF THE CONSIDERATION ARISING FROM DISCHARGING THE DEBT OF ANOTHER.

If A is compelled to do for B that which B should have done, and was under an obligation to do himself, A can now demand from B full indemnity or compensation; and, to enable him to enforce this claim, the law will imply or presume a request from B that A should do this thing, and also a promise from B to A of repayment or indemnity, which promise rests upon the sufficient consideration of A's doing, or undertaking to do, that thing; and the law will not permit the party to deny the request or promise which it thus presumes. This rule applies to all cases in which a surety or guarantor pays or does for his principal that which the principal undertook to do, and the surety undertook that he would do for the principal if the principal did not do it. The law considers that this request of the principal to the surety, and also this promise of indemnity, belong necessarily to such a relation.

But the rule is quite otherwise where A without compulsion does for B what B was under an obligation to do for himself; as if A voluntarily pays to C a debt due from B to C. Here the law will not presume or imply both the request and the promise. If, therefore, neither be proved, A cannot enforce repayment from B; and the reason is that A cannot, as was before remarked, make himself the creditor of B without B's assent. And this reason is more than merely technical, for B may have good ground for preferring to be the debtor of C, rather than of A. But if A can prove either the request or the promise, the law will conclusively presume the other. Thus, if A can prove that B requested him to pay his debt to C, the law will presume B's promise of repayment; or if A can prove that B promised to A a repayment, the law will consider this as an acknowledgment and acceptance of the payment as a service rendered to him, and will thereupon presume a previous request to A. And in either case A can recover from B on this promise.

THE STOCK OF GOLD IN THE UNITED STATES.

We insert the following remarks from the California *Mercantile Gazette and Price Current*, upon the article in the March number of this magazine, respecting "the Stock of Gold in the United States," being only desirous of getting "at the facts of the case if they are attainable," and wishing, if we have, as stated below, "bulled" the gold market by the facts in our former article, to help the *Gazette* to "bear" it now:

In the March number of *Hunt's Merchants Magazine* we find the following statement, which purports to be an approximation of the amount of precious metals in the United States in the year 1862:

On hand in 1821			$37,000,000
Import, 1821 to 1849		$252,241,167	
Export, 1821 to 1849		180,452,701	
Net import		$71,788,356	
United States mines 1821 to 1849		13,811,206	
			85,599,562
On hand 1849			$122,599,562
United States mines 1849 to 1862		$523,070,040	
Import, 1849 to 1862	$135,325,508		
Export, 1849 to 1862	536,984,987	402,659,479	
			120,410,561
On hand 1862			$243,010,123

We confess to some surprise at finding such a statement as this in the *Merchants' Magazine*, whose statistics have hitherto been accepted as authentic and reliable. The writer, in his attempt to correct the wild and erroneous figures of Hallet & Co., has evidently gone over to the other extreme. We much regret this, as tending to impair confidence in other statements contained in that valuable periodical.

Of the first epoch embraced in the foregoing table (1821 to 1849) we shall say nothing, except that it corresponds substantially with official records for the year 1848. Of the second epoch (1849 to 1862) we shall endeavor to show that some of the figures are very wide of the mark. The product of the mines of the United States during this period is placed, in the above statement, at $523,070,040. That this is a most palpable error is shown by the fact that the sum of $528,145,655, was received at the United States Mint and Branches from California alone, according to the official report of the Director, under date of June 30th, 1862. Now it is well known that a very large portion of the California gold exported from the United States never enters the mint nor any of its branches. Here then, we perceive at once an enormous omission. The writer in the magazine not only estimates the whole yield of the mines of the United States at less than the amount actually received at the mint from California alone, but overlooks entirely the vast sums exported without government stamp or die. The clearances from this port direct to foreign countries have been near $60,000,000, of which at least seven-eighths were in grains and the bullion of private assayers—never inscribed on the mint records at all. The exports from Eastern cities partake largely of the same character. Gold received from this coast, a large portion of it goes into banks or private vaults until wanted for export, and is then sent off in the same shape to foreign countries.

The statement of imports and exports in the magazine agrees substantially

with tables in the finance report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1861, and does not come down to 1862, though professing to do so. The figures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1862, are not fully at our disposal; but the following estimates cannot be far out of the way: Exports, $40,000,000; imports, $12,000,000. This will give the totals from 1849 to 1862, inclusive, in round numbers: Exports, $578,000,000; imports, $147,300,000. Of these imports a very large portion was deposited in the mint. Official reports for the years 1861 and 1862 alone, show the deposits of foreign coin and bullion in that institution to have been over $47,000,000. But without stopping to hunt up the figures for preceding years, we will suppose that of the $147,300,000 imported, $100,000,000 was sent away again, and included in the aggregate of specie clearances. This will leave a balance of treasure exports during the epoch under consideration (1849 to 1862) amounting to $478,000,000—entirely, it may be supposed, of home production.

Now the question arises, what portion of this amount passed through the mint or its branches, including, of course, the New York Assay-office, whose operations are embraced in mint reports. We have conversed with some of our most intelligent bankers, who have given the subject attention while on visits at the East, and they assure us that the great bulk goes forward to Europe in the very shape received, and that an allowance of one-third would probably cover the entire amount refined or coined by the mint. If this proportion is not correct, our cotemporary of the magazine, who has access to records beyond our reach, can, perhaps, give us the true figures, and we will thank him to do so. Our object is simply to arrive at the facts. How much of this treasure exported was in domestic bullion not entered at the mint or assay-office? This is the question, and when answered, the amount, whatever it may be, added to the receipts at mint, will give a near approximation to our home production of the precious metals.

With these data before us we proceed to construct a statement which will not be found to differ materially in its results from the one presented in our review of 20th ultimo, though in different shape, and brought down a year later.

Assuming the amount of coin and bullion on hand, June 30, 1848, to have been, in round numbers	$122,600,000
Amount deposited in mint and branches from that period to June 30, 1862, from all domestic sources, as per mint report	541,500,000
Amount received from domestic sources for export during same period, and not passed through mint, estimated	250,000,000
Foreign imports	147,300,000
Total	$1,061,400,000
Exports during the same period	578,000,000
Amount on hand, January 30, 1862	$483,400,000

Total domestic product of precious metals from June 30, 1848, to June 30, 1862, $791,500,000, or an average of about $57,000,000 per annum.

We cannot, of course, pretend to strict accuracy in these figures, but commend them to our brother of the magazine, as possibly a few hundred millions nearer the truth than his own. Erroneous statements emanating from so high a source are adapted to mislead and tend to elevate the market value of gold above its proper measure, and to depress in a corresponding degree the value of government paper. It is well known that we have no affection for paper money, whether issued by government or by local banks, and gold is the great product and interest of the Pacific coast; but we desire nothing but fair play—no bulling or bearing, of which the article in the magazine savors, and which is surely out of place in the compilation of statistics for the public guidance. We would be glad to get at the facts in this case if they are attainable.

It will be seen that the *Gazette* supposes our figures are much too low in two particulars. As, however, the object with all of us is as stated, simply to get at the facts, let us look a moment at the *Gazette's* strictures and see whether the conclusions we reached should be altered.

1. First, we must ask the *Gazette* to remember we were not in our article trying to determine the quantity of gold that had been *produced* in the country; we endeavored simply to show the amount now *in* it. What pertinency, then, has that portion of the above remarks telling us of the millions that have been "exported direct to foreign countries" without going through the mint? Suppose we should admit that $250,000,000 had been "received from domestic sources and exported," how would that affect our table, or the conclusions we reached? If it has been exported it is clearly not *here*. May we then ask the *Gazette* by what course of reasoning it reaches the conclusion that the item of $250,000,000, stated to be "received from domestic sources for *export* from June 30, 1848 to January 30, 1862, is a part of the "amount on hand" (in the United States) January 30 1862?

2. The *Gazette* also questions the correctness of some of the figures we give. Thus it says, we profess to "come down to 1862," when we only come down to June 30, 1861. Inasmuch as July 1, 1861, commences the fiscal year, 1862, we certainly come as near to 1862 as we could well get. Again, it says that in giving the products of the United States at $523,070,040, we make "a palpable error, as is shown by the fact that the sum of $528,145,665 was received from California alone." We will believe that this remark is only an inadvertence of the *Gazette*, and yet it seems as if it ought to have seen and read the figures we gave, inasmuch as it copied them, and to have understood that they are only brought down to June 30, 1861, or "to" the year 1862, (Financial Report, page 90,) while those of the *Gazette* are "for" the year ending June 30, 1862, (that is, "to" 1863,) a year later, and erroneous at that by one year's California deposits, amounting to $26,854,667. Certainly the *Gazette* must have read our article very carelessly, if at all, and we are inclined to think it has seen only certain newspaper extracts from it. A journal so almost invariably correct could not otherwise have fallen into the errors we have referred to.

There are no other points in the *Gazette's* article which it is necessary to notice, except it may be the question as to how much treasure is exported in grains or domestic bullion and not entered at the Assay Office. To that question we would answer, that there is none exported in that shape. As to our article, we would simply add that the figures we gave were official returns, making no estimates of coin known to be carried away by passengers or brought in by immigrants, or the quantities sent into Canada.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

(OFFICIAL REPORT.)

The annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce for election of officers was held Thursday, May 7, 1863.

Mr. PELATIAH PERIT, President, on taking the chair, addressed the Chamber as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In proceeding to the election of officers, for which we are convened to day, our first act will be, the choice of a president; and as I am not a candidate for re-election, when your ballots are cast, I shall retire from office. This is, therefore, the only opportunity which I shall have of addressing you from this place, and I avail of it to make my warm acknowledgments for the kind support which you have given me in the administration of the duties of the office, which has rendered pleasant and easy what would otherwise have been onerous and difficult; and I beg leave on this occasion to call your attention to the desirableness not only of sustaining this institution, but maintaining it with vigor and spirit. It is an organization always ready to act on important questions affecting the public interest, that from time to time come before it. It can at all times act with promptitude, and its proceedings have been always regarded with respect by the general and State governments and by the public at large. Within a few months we have had an expression of warm acknowledgment from the executive government of the United States, for our proceedings in connection with national affairs.

Within the last few years the attendance of the members constituting the Chamber has much improved, and they have evinced a more lively interest in its affairs than in previous years. This I impute partly to the opening of these rooms, the establishment of a library in connection with the institution, and the appointment of a stated secretary, who gives his daily attention to its affairs. But more, perhaps, is to be attributed to the exciting events continually coming up before us, in consequence of the tremendous war under which the country is laboring.

Fears have been expressed by some of our members that we are going too much into politics; but these, I think, have been groundless apprehensions, and you will look in vain for any record on the minutes of our transactions not fully authorized by the principles of true patriotism. I trust the Chamber will always feel that it can properly act thus on all the important subjects of a national character that may come before it. In the early part of the history of the Chamber we find that it was their habit so to act. Our charter dates back to 1768. Prior to the revolutionary war this Chamber remonstrated against what was considered the unrighteous taxation imposed upon this country by the British government; and from that time to this, through successive periods, national matters have always been taken up, and acted on as coming within our appropriate province.

Among other motives prompting to the maintenance of this institution, may be mentioned its connection with that noble charity, "The Sailors' Snug Harbor." You know the history and character of that institution, founded by Captain RICHARD RANDALL. Four hundred and fifty superannuated sailors are there fed and clothed, and in everything affecting their temporal and spiritual welfare provided for. They are treated with every care and kindness. The property of this institution, if an inventory were made, would amount to $2,000,000. The annual income, chiefly from ground rents in the Fifteenth Ward of this city, is about $75,000, and as sailors do not generally live to an advanced age, the number of the superannuated is not so great but that there is reason to hope that for a long period to come the institution will be able to receive all who are worthy applicants. The president of this Chamber is *ex officio* member and one of the seven trustees, and it has been the habit of the directors to make him, also, chairman of the executive committee, upon which devolves a large share of the duties.

Another motive for keeping up this institution is founded in the fact, that it is a sort of continuous or connecting link between the present race of merchants and those of the past, and the races who are to follow. Our records contain a pretty well connected history of all the important mercantile changes that have taken place for the last hundred years, found in the resolutions and memorials which have been adopted in that long interval of time.

In the course of more than fifty years of commercial life in New York, I have acted with three races or generations of merchants. First, with those men who were on the stage at the commencement of the present century, among whom were men who should always be mentioned with respect, men of great moral worth, whose influence was very great in forming the commercial character of New York. I need hardly mention the names, they are familiar to you all—ARCHIBALD GRACIE, WILLIAM BAYARD, HERMAN LEROY, BENJAMIN MINTURN, JOHN JACOB ASTOR, EBENEZER STEVENS, ROBERT LENOX, JOHN MURRAY, MATTHEW CLARKSON, and I might add many others. Men who in that day held a prominence which at the present time is not accorded to those of the same position. There was some remnant of aristocracy at that time, which has since become obliterated. I remember well the profound respect which the junior merchants of those days paid to these eminent men, and how scrupulously they bowed to them, whenever in their offices or on business they appeared before them.

The second race with whom I acted were my own cotemporaries—men of intelligence and great moral worth—and they, too, have nearly all disappeared from the stage.

The third race are my juniors, and who are now the active members of the mercantile profession in New York, and I owe to them, in a great measure, the fact that in advanced years I have not yet fully formed all the habits of an old man. I have alluded to these names, and to the succession of merchants who have appeared on the stage, partly with a view to present to your minds the high character of the merchants of New York, whether we regard their enterprise, intelligence, public spirit, philanthrophy, or the other qualities which adorn the human character. Of their enterprise you have evidence in the crowded shipyards and wharves of our city, and in the countless sails which whiten every ocean, even

in the midst of this tremendous war. Of their public spirit you have evidence in their frequent movements to support the government, and to promote other important public objects. Of their philanthropy you have numerous instances at home and abroad, where extreme misery has been relieved by their liberal contributions, when suffering has arisen from *famine, pestilence,* or *shipwreck.* You will find further evidence of this in the numerous colleges and institutions of learning, and in the churches erected every where throughout the length and breadth of the land, through their liberal gifts. I deem it an honor to belong to such a body of men; and now, gentlemen, in retiring from office, I can only express my earnest wishes that this institution may ever prosper, and that individually, all of you may long enjoy the richest blessings of Providence.

Mr. PERIT then stated that it was in order to ballot for officers for the ensuing year.

The Chamber then went into an election for a president.

Mr. A. A. Low having received the unanimous vote of the members present, was declared duly elected.

On, motion a committee of three was appointed to wait upon the newly elected president and inform him of his election, and conduct him to the chair.

Mr. Low was then introduced, and the oath of office was administered in accordance with the prescribed form by the retiring president. After which Mr. Low addressed the Chamber as follows:

GENTLEMEN OF THE CHAMBER: I have just now listened to the parting words of the venerable man—if I may be permitted so to speak—who has for so many years filled the office of president of this Chamber, and for seven years has been called to that office by your unanimous voice; who now obeys a law stronger than your voice, and seeks retirement, which advancing years render most necessary. It has been justly observed while I have stood in this presence, by one of your oldest members, that no man has left this chair and sought an honorable retirement, followed more earnestly by the good wishes and profound respect, and even the gratitude of the members of this Chamber, than PELATIAH PERIT. In contemplating a successor to the gentleman, I will frankly say, that till very recently my thoughts have been turned to the late vice-president, ROYAL PHELPS, whose resignation, accepted in my absence from this Chamber, I have felt was an action to regret; for his interest was always active; he was alive to the proceedings of this Chamber; he had served our city but recently with great industry and zeal in the State Legislature, and I felt so earnestly that the honor of this appointment would have devolved upon him, that I may be permitted, in passing, to express my regret that you have been called upon, in obedience to a law of comity, to bring another to the office.

In assuming the duties of this office, for the preference, for the choice, which you have freely, and I hope unanimously made on this occasion, for this mark of your confidence permit me to return you my thanks. To the oath of fidelity, which I have just taken, to serve the interests of the Chamber of Commerce according to the limited ability with which God has invested in me, I need add no other pledge. For the honor you have conferred upon me I will strive—if I cannot hope—to return accep-

table service. The late president of the Chamber has indicated in what ways this Chamber may be useful to the community; how it can continue to maintain the important place it has occupied in the affections and interests of its members. If you would interpret my feelings as I enter upon this charge, I have simply to refer you, as he has already done, to the long list of eminent men who in times past have occupied this chair. You will bear in mind that this Chamber dates back its existence to a period prior to the revolution; and, it is a little singular, if you will consult the annals of the Chamber, to notice that it found its existence at that particular period when the people of this country so unanimously proclaimed against taxation without representation. It is curious to consider these incidents in the history of the Chamber, and think how recently we have resolved, in obedience to the same law of representation, to acknowledge upon every document, upon every note, upon every parchment, the "tribute to whom tribute is due." In obedience to the recognized law of the land we met that obligation, as all others, with cheerfulness and with promptitude, for we hold that the interests of commerce and the interests of government are closely identified. We uphold the government in order that the institutes of commerce may be sustained. The two live together, and, when the rebels wage war upon the government and the country, they wage war upon all the interests of commerce. The spirit of commerce dictates, as the voice of this chamber has heretofore dictated, free trade. Free trade I would say under certain limitations, for I do not agree with all the advocates of free trade. I believe in free trade, however, within the borders of our common country—from Maine to Georgia; from the Atlantic to the Pacific; and, when barriers are erected against that trade; when guns are mounted upon the banks of our rivers; when free course from their sources to their mouths is interrupted, the spirit of commerce dictates that these barriers shall be removed. Commerce and good government alike demand that the voice of the rebellion shall be hushed; for commerce, you must know and feel, is dependant upon the free exercise of governmental laws. Commerce—the spirit of commerce—most naturally acts in an important juncture like this, and, when the voice of the people is divided in regard to exciting issues, it is not strange that the course of this Chamber should be watched with interest and with jealousy, to see that it has a single aim, and that aim is the upholding of all the great interests of the country. It would be impossible to separate the parts which have been taken by the merchants, the agriculturists, the manufacturers, and the scientific men of our land in building up this great country; but, standing here in the midst of the monuments of its own creation, it must be accorded to the spirit of commerce that it has built up, as it has combined all these other instrumentalities; that it has built up this great commercial emporium, at once the heart of the country and the type of its future destiny. I would ask you to ponder what has been said by the recent incumbent of this chair, in regard to the method of sustaining, as it ought to be sustained, this Chamber, representing the great interests of commerce. Something indeed depends upon the presiding officer, but much, very much, depends upon individual members. I know full well that the course of the presiding officer of this Chamber has been criticised, because, in the appointment of committees, he has selected, again and again, the same individuals to consider and report upon questions

which have been under consideration here. Well, it is natural, it is no more than natural, that the president, who seeks committees to attend to the affairs of this Chamber, shall select them from the men who frequent this Chamber. There is no law but that which binds a man to any other duty, which can bring him here after he has once entered upon membership. You require your president to take an oath of fidelity; no such oath is required from you, and yet it depends upon you more than upon him—upon the committees selected to supervise and consider subjects brought before you—whether this Chamber shall represent, as it ought to represent, the high character of this great commercial community; and while it only nominally stands here to give organized expression to the thoughts and feelings and spirit of this community, it remains an imperfect and unfaithful organization. It depends upon you, gentlemen, as well as upon me, what stand this Chamber shall take in the future in regatd to the growth of this city, the high honor of this city, and the growth and character of the whole State; for you will remember that the title of this Chamber is "*The Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York.*" Therefore it devolves upon you to maintain alike the commercial character of the city, the commercial character of the State, and, as Americans, the commercial character of the country. Hence, when the affairs of the city are under consideration, you will have one regard for them; when the affairs of the State are under consideration, you will have one regard for them; and when the affairs of the country are under consideration, your interests, your affections, and your pride will be enlisted for the honor and welfare of our country.

Now, with such a purpose, this Chamber cannot withhold, occasionally, its expression of encouragement, its support, recommendations, and suggestions to those who fill offices of trust and power—who preside over the destinies of the state and the destinies of our country.

The connection between commerce and law is too intimate to require mention before you. Commerce depends upon the enactment of just laws—liberal laws—such as will promote and not retard its growth; and it will fall upon you to advocate at all times the enactment of such laws as will tend to extend and enlarge the relations of commerce. How, then, can this Chamber be indifferent to the maintenance of the government of our country? I know that in the South the charge is brought—and we admit it to be brought as a reproach against the North—that we are a nation of traders, and therefore inferior to the men of the South. But there is no relation of commerce, in its higher or its lower manifestations, in which it may not contribute to the welfare and profit of man: it may be small, or it may be large, but, everywhere, it seeks out the wants of a community and it supplies them. It brings the toiling millions of Europe to cultivate our agricultural fields; it brings science and literature and art and learning from other lands to our own, and it reciprocates these gifts from abroad. Such is the office of commerce. There is one kind of traffic, however, from which the North has turned with *loathing and disgust*, and that is the traffic that is peculiar to the South. I hold that it is with a very bad grace that the men of the South turn upon the men of the North and claim superiority, while they make that odious traffic the corner-stone of their government. For myself, I may be permitted to say that I glory in the grand and boundless developments of commerce and its continually enlarging opportunities; in its high aims

and expanding tendencies, as it acts upon men and upon communities. Yet, while this reproach is attempted to be cast upon us by those of the South, the men of the North will not give back hate for hate; but we will give them our love, and pray that the time may soon come when order will be restored, and when this whole people will recognize the laws and government of the land, and when, in obedience to the laws of commerce, we may carry again to the hungry communities of the South the bread and the wheat and those things which we raise, that they may not want for anything which would be conducive to their comfort or to their improvement, and that we may take from them those things which are necessary for us—always giving a *quid pro quo*. These are feelings in which I am sure you agree with me, and I think it not improper to express them here. I hope and pray that the day will come when we may enjoy together all the institutions of commerce—when we may give to them those things which they need, and take from them those things which we need. But that day, unhappily does not seem to be near. We can only pray for its coming.

And now, gentlemen, I thank you that you have listened to me with such attention in these remarks, which I did not expect to be called upon to make to-day. If I could have followed my own inclinations, I would have absented myself from this room; but, as the constitution of this Chamber required that I should take my oath of office in the presence of the gentlemen who has recently left this chair, and is called away from the city and cannot find it convenient to return, I have ventured, without preparation, to make these few remarks. For them, as for my future acts, I claim, with much confidence, your indulgence, because I have never found it wanting during my connection with this Chamber.

The election was then proceeded with for the remaining officers. The following are the results:

Mr. William E. Dodge was elected First Vice-President; Mr. Jonathan Sturges was elected Second Vice-President; Mr. Edward C. Bogert was re-elected Treasurer; Mr. John Austin Stevens, Jr., was re-elected Secretary; Mr. Robert B. Minturn was re-elected Chairman of the Arbitration Committee; Mr. George W. Lane was elected a member of the Arbitration Committee for one year, from February 2d, to fill the vacancy caused by the expiration of the term of Mr. Jonathan Sturges.

The following were elected the Executive Committee, of which the President, First and Second Vice-Presidents, and Secretary are *ex-officio* members: Charles H. Marshall, *Chairman*, Simeon B. Chittenden, Denning Duer, James Gallatin, Sheppard Gandy, Walter S. Griffith, Nathaniel L. McCready, James D. P. Ogden, Henry A. Smythe, Benjamin R. Winthrop.

Messrs. Abraham M. Cozzens, Merritt Trimble, and John D. McKenzie were elected Trustees of the Institution for the Savings of Merchants' Clerks for the term of three years.

Messrs. Charles A. Davis, *Chairman*, William Barton, Henry K. Bogert, Charles H. Marshall, John K. Myers were elected a Committee on Mercantile Library for the term of one year.

Mr. Charles H. Marshall after a few appropriate remarks presented the following preamble and resolutions, which were adopted unanimously:

Whereas, This Chamber has learned with sincere regret that its venerable president, PELATIAH PERIT, Esq., has declined a re-election to the position which he has filled during the past ten years, and to which he has been called at so many successive annual elections by the unanimous voice of this body. Therefore, be it—

Resolved, That our thanks are due and are hereby cordially tendered to Mr. PERIT for his unwavering interest in the affairs of this Chamber, to whose usefulness and efficiency he has so largely contributed, and especially for his continuance for so long a time, and at the sacrifice of so much personal convenience, in the presidency, and for the invariable dignity, courtesy, and impartiality with which he has discharged its duties.

Resolved, That in thus terminating our official connection with one whose career as a New York merchant extends through the last half century, and is identified with all the vicisitudes of disaster and success which have marked that eventful period of our country's history, it is a pleasing duty to record our testimony to the integrity, constancy, and fidelity to duty, public and private, by which that career has been signalized, and which have been known and read of all men. In thus commemorating these high traits of character, and in commending them to the imitation of all engaged in the pursuits of commerce, we do honor not only to their possessor, but also to those free institutions under which they were developed, and in whose preservation, from foreign enemies and from domestic treason and rebellion, his warmest and most patriotic sympathies have ever been enlisted.

Resolved, That our best wishes for his health and continued prosperity will follow our late president into his retirement, accompanied with the hope that he may be permitted to prosecute to a satisfactory end the task which he has undertaken, and for which his varied experience and sound judgment so eminently qualify him—of writing the history of the Commerce of the United States.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions, suitably engrossed, under the seal of the Chamber, and duly attested, be transmitted by the Secretary to Mr. PERIT.

The Chamber then adjourned.

FRANCE.

"SITUATION ECONOMIQUE ET COMMERCIALE DE LA FRANCE."

The French Ministry of Commerce has just issued a statistical abstract for France, with the above title, for the period of fifteen years from 1847 to 1861, inclusive. Heretofore every ten years a volume has been issued, entitled "Tableau Décennal du Commerce de la France," etc., the last of which was for the years from 1847 to 1856; so that the additional returns we now receive are only for the five years from 1857 to 1861, both years inclusive. In the last "Tableau Décennal" the effect of the revolution of 1848 upon the trade of the country could be traced, extending through six years, as will be seen by the following table of importations:

IMPORTS FROM 1847 TO 1852.

	General commerce.	Special commerce.
1847.....francs	1,290,300,000	955,900,000
1848.....	708,300,000	474,300,000
1849.....	1,021,300,000	724,100,000
1850.....	1,119,800,000	790,700,000
1851.....	1,093,800,000	765,100,000
1852.....	1,392,000,000	989,400,000

The customs received during the same period were as follows:

CUSTOMS FROM 1847 TO 1852.

1847 .....francs	201,100,440	1850 .....francs	154,030,209
1848.....	147,707,920	1851.....	147,830,616
1849.....	162,830,280	1852.....	175,237,146

Since the disturbing effects of the revolution have passed away, the progress of France has been decided, except during the commercial panic of 1857, as is abundantly shown on an examination of this new statistical abstract. We are indebted to the London *Economist* for the figures, and in a great measure for the review we give, not having seen the volume which is just published.

COMMERCE.

The quinquennial averages of imports and exports from 1847 to 1861 have been as follows:

	Imports.		Exports.	
Periods.	Total.	For home consumption.	Total.	French produce.
1847–51.	£41,000,000	£29,000,000	£49,000,000	£36,000,000
1852–56.	78,000,000	56,000,000	84,000,000	61,000,000
1857–61.	103,000,000	75,000,000	112,000,000	81,000,000

These figures are exclusive of bullion and specie, which amounted in the same periods to:

Periods.	Average imports.	Average exports.
1847–51	£10,000,000	£3,500,000
1852–56	19,000,000	14,000,000
1857–61	27,000,000	19,000,000

The large increase of trade in the last period was partly owing to the operation of the commercial treaties with England and Belgium during 1860 and 1861; but, making allowance for the trade under these treaties, the commerce of France steadily increased under the old *régime* up to 1860.

The proportion of the imports taken for home consumption did not vary much within the period, ranging from 70 to 72 per cent of the total imports. The exports of domestic produce likewise formed about 72 per cent of the total exports throughout the period.

Imports and Exports.—The following table shows the chief countries with which France traded in 1847, 1859, and 1861. The column for 1859 is introduced to show the extent of trade in the year preceding the conclusion of the commercial treaties with England and Belgium. The amounts are given in millions sterling:

VALUE OF IMPORTS.

Principal countries.	Total imports.			Entered for consumption.		
	1847.	1859.	1861.	1847.	1859.	1861.
From United Kingdom	£4¼	£16¼	£22¼	£2¾	£11	£17½
Russia	4	2½	6½	4	2¼	6¼
Zollverein	2⅜	8¾	11¼	2	4½	6⅜
Belgium	6	8	11	4½	6½	8⅝
Switzerland	4	10½	8	1	2	2⅛
Spain	2	3	3½	1½	2¼	2¾
Italy	5½	6⅜	8	4½	5½	7
Turkey	3⅝	4½	4¾	2⅜	3¼	4½
United States	5½	8⅝	15⅝	4½	8	14½
French colonies	4¼	5⅝	7⅝	3¼	5½	7¼
Total	51	94	123	38	65½	97½

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

	Total exports.			French produce.		
	1847.	1859.	1861.	1847.	1859.	1861.
To United Kingdom	£6¼	£31	£24	£4½	£23½	£18¼
Russia	⅘	1½	2½	⅜	1¼	1¼
Zollverein	2½	7	7½	1⅝	5⅝	6½
Belgium	2½	7½	6⅝	2	6⅝	6¼
Switzerland	3¼	11	10½	1¼	4½	5½
Spain	2½	5½	8	2	4	5¼
Italy	3⅜	10	11½	2¼	7¼	7¼
Turkey	⅘	2½	2¼	½	1½	1¼
United States	7½	17½	4½	4½	12¼	3¼
French colonies	5¼	9⅘	9½	4¼	9¼	8⅝
Total	42	122¼	106½	28⅝	90½	77

On examining the figures in this table, it will be seen that a consider-

able change has taken place in the relative positions of several countries as sources of supply. Thus, in 1847 Belgium stood first on the list, followed by Italy and the United States. In 1859 and 1861 the United Kingdom occupied the first position, and the United States the second, (except in the case of imports for 1859,) both as regards general imports and entries for consumption. The United Kingdom also affords to France the largest market for the disposal of French produce, taking about one-fourth of the total exports, and the United States comes next.

With the exception of grain, the importations of which varied with seasons of good and bad harvests, the value of other articles maintained a nearly similar proportion during each of the fifteen years. Up to the year 1860 the imports consisted chiefly of raw materials and produce, manufactures of most kinds being either virtually or entirely prohibited. The value of raw silk imported in 1859 was £8,500,000; of raw cotton, £6,000,000; and of raw wool, £5,000,000; these three articles are the most important in the list of imports.

The line of commercial policy pursued by the French Government best appears in the tariff changes made in past years. Between 1816 and 1859 the principal reductions of duty were made on colonial produce, skins, dyestuffs, chemicals, and raw products. The only exceptions, so far as British produce was concerned, were the reduction of the linen duties in 1836, which were raised again in 1845, and the reduction of the duties in 1855 on pig and bar iron, steel, coal, and machinery. The duties on the last named articles, however, although reduced, were in many cases prohibitive, and were of no benefit to English producers. It is easy to perceive that all the changes were made solely in favor of the French manufacturer, and were intended either to give him increased facilities of production, or to prevent foreign articles from coming into close competition with his own in the French markets, and thus to secure to him a large margin for profits. The necessity of legislating for the *consumer* was not then understood.

As the *protective* character of the French tariff before the treaty with Great Britain was concluded is not generally known, it may be as well to state that by it the yarns of Manchester and Leeds—the textile fabrics of Manchester, Glasgow, Leeds, Huddersfield, Bradford, Leicester, and Coventry—the stoneware of Staffordshire, London, and Newcastle—the glassware of Birmingham, Newcastle, and London—the hardware of Birmingham and Wolverhampton—the cutlery of Sheffield and many other large branches of our trade, were entirely excluded from the French markets.

These articles were not only prohibited from England but from all other countries, and consequently the French manufacturers had the monopoly of supplying French consumers on their own terms. Happily the barrier of protection has been broken, and the large importations of cheap goods shows how glad the French consumer is to be relieved from the thraldom of the French producers.

The following are the principal articles of French produce exported from France in 1860:

Silk manufactures....	£18,000,000	Ready-made linen....	£4.000,000
Woolen manufactures.	9,000,000	Tanned leather.....	1,750,000
Wine	8,750,000	Leather manufactures.	3,500,000
Grain	4,750,000	Smallwares.....	3,750,000

The value of silk manufactures forms about one-fifth of the total exports of French produce, and the silk industry in France occupies a corresponding position in that country to that of the cotton industry in England. Woolen manufactures and wine are the next in importance. The export of grain is very variable. The increase in the value of wine exported in the year 1860, as compared with the exports in 1847, was very large, being eight and three-fourth millions sterling against two millions.

Customs Duties.—The revenue received from customs duties in 1847, 1859, and 1861, was as follows:

	On imports.	On exports.
1847	£5,459,000	£81,000
1859	7,579,000	168,800
1861	5,069,000	64,500

The articles which produced the largest proportion of duty in 1859 were sugar, coffee, raw cotton, and coal. The falling off in 1861 was partly due to the depression of trade during that year.

Port Trade.—The amount of trade at each of the principal ports in 1861 was as under:

	Per cent.		Per cent.
At Marseilles	16	At Dunkirk	4
Havre	12	Rouen	2½
Nantes	12	Other ports	34½
Paris	11		
Bordeaux	8	Total	100

Transit Trade.—The transit trade of France increased very largely between 1847 and 1860. In 1861 there was a decline caused by the falling off of the Swiss goods sent in transit to the United States. The value of merchandise exported from France in transit in each of the three years was:

1847	£7,000,000
1860	24,000,000
1861	19,000,000

Temporary Importations.—Besides the general imports, certain articles are admitted duty free for the purpose of being manufactured and exported. The value of these imports in 1861 amounted to 2,000,000 sterling, and the value of goods manufactured from materials imported temporarily duty free was £5,500,000.

NAVIGATION.

The following table gives the total mercantile tonnage *belonging* to France on the 31st December in each year from 1827 to 1861, which amounted—

In 1827 to.....tons	692,000	In 1858 to.....tons	1,049,000
1830.....	689,000	1859.....	1,025,000
1840.....	662,000	1860.....	996,000
1847.....	670,000	1861.....	983,000
1857.....	1,052,000		

Thus it appears that during the first twenty years the amount of ton-

nage belonging to the country remained stationary; that between 1847 and 1857 it increased by 57 per cent in the ten years, and that since that date it has gradually declined, on the average by about two per cent per annum. It is not improbable that the temporary progress made between 1847 and 1857 was in great part owing to the demand for transports during the Crimean war.

As far as the *shipbuilding* interest is concerned, it is evident, then, that it has not gained any advantage from the French Navigation Laws, and as regards the *employment* of French tonnage, it will be seen that the protection afforded to French shipping has failed to secure to it as large a share in the carrying trade of the country, as is enjoyed by national vessels in other countries which admit free competition in trade and shipping.

But there is another important point which we must not omit to notice; it is seen by reference to the figures above quoted that the present system is leading to a decrease in the amount of merchant shipping belonging to France, while, on the other hand, the trade of the country is rapidly increasing. What, may we ask, will be the result of this? It must naturally follow, so long at least as the French merchant or manufacturer is forced by the present differential rates to employ French tonnage, that freights must rise, and the general trade of the country will suffer for the benefit of a small class of the population, viz., the shipowners. But this state of things cannot last, as the French merchants will not consent to remain restricted to a limited supply of shipping at high rates, when their foreign competitors enjoy the privilege of employing the shipping of any nation that will carry their goods at low freights. Let us hope that the labors of the Commission which sat in Paris last year, for the purpose of considering the effect of the present navigation laws on French shipping, may not have been in vain, and we are anxiously awaiting the appearance of their report.

TONNAGE BELONGING TO FRANCE, ON 31ST DECEMBER, 1861.

Sailing and steam vessels.	Vessels.	Tons.
Of 800 tons and above	31	36,006
700–800	31	22,835
600–700	48	31,094
500–600	118	64,328
400–500	243	108,624
300–400	294	103,408
200–300	654	158,288
100–200	1,364	193,152
60–100	1,640	125,695
30– 60	1,551	66,008
30 tons and under	9,091	74,558
Total	15,065	983,996

Small fishing boats employed on the coast are not included in the above return.

Steam Tonnage.—The number, tonnage, and horse-power of steam vessels belonging to France on the 31st December, 1861, was—

Vessels	327
Tonnage	73,267
Horse-power	35,085

We must now pass to the statistics of shipping, which are divided into —1, the trade reserved to French vessels; and 2, the trade open to foreign vessels.

1. The trades reserved to French vessels are those with the colonies, (except in some cases to Algeria,) the coasting trade, and the fisheries. The progress of French shipping engaged in these trades during the last fifteen years was—

FRENCH TONNAGE, WITH CARGOES, ENTERED OR CLEARED FROM AND TO FRENCH COLONIES AND POSSESSIONS.

	Tons.		Tons.
In 1847.....	428,000	In 1861.....	643,000

From and to the fisheries:

	Tons.		Tons.
With cargoes, in 1847...	114,000	With cargoes, in 1861...	129,000

In the coasting trade:

	Tons.		Tons.
With cargoes, in 1847.	2,919,000	With cargoes, in 1861.	3,103,000

Fisheries.—The production of the whale fisheries exhibits a considerable decline of late years; the quantity of oil and whalefins produced in 1847 and 1861 were:

OIL.

1847..tonneaux métriques*	3,514	1861...tonneaux métriques	130

WHALEFINS.

1847.....	116	1861.....	2

The quantity of cod fish exported from the fisheries and from French ports in 1847 was 16,108 tonneaux métriques, and in 1861, 13,395.

The coast fisheries in France on the 31st December, 1861, numbered 8,041 boats, of 59,541 tons, and 39,898 men.

2. *Foreign Trade.*—The following table shows the amount of tonnage of each nation trading with France in the years 1847 and 1861:

TOTAL TONNAGE ENTERED AND CLEARED AT FRENCH PORTS WITH CARGOES ONLY.

Nationality of vessels.	1847.	1861.
British.....	989,397	2,159,399
Norwegian.....	217,833	271,686
Swedish.....	43,754	42,735
Danish.....	16,093	25,536
Russian	85,768	109,969
Prussian.....	55,258	95,720
Hanoverian and Oldenburg	14,333	10,882
Mecklenburg	17,648	10,170
Hanseatic.....	22,379	17,988
Dutch.....	46,410	86,679
Belgian	1,867	11,553

* 2,200 pounds avoirdupois.

	1847.	1861.
Spanish	99,098	224,647
Portuguese	4,752	10,882
Italian	413,823	557,700
Austrian	139,773	172,442
Greek	184,304	191,396
Turkish	30,678	15,688
Barbary States	156	.....
American (U. S.)	317,978	577,807
Brazilian	1,152	6,053
Monte Videan	2,833	675
Chilian	1,530	600
Venezuelan	618	...
Mexican	...	920
Total foreign	2,707,457	4,605,127
French, including the trade with the colonies and fisheries	1,589,351	3,013,684
Total	4,296,808	7,618,811

Thus we see that the French tonnage engaged in the foreign and colonial trades of the country only amounted to thirty-seven per cent of the whole in 1847, and to thirty-nine and-a-half per cent in 1861; while in the United Kingdom, where foreign ships are admitted on equal terms with national vessels, the British tonnage enjoyed in 1861 sixty per cent of the carrying trade of the country.

POPULATION, PRODUCTION, ETC.

Population.—The area of France in the year 1861 was 209,420 square miles, and the total population 37,382,000 persons, giving a mean population of 179 persons to the square mile. The figures include the departments of Savoy and Nice, and consequently prevent any comparison being made with previous census returns. The increase in the population of France (exclusive of Savoy and Nice) in the decennial period between 1846 and 1856 was only 2.23 per cent. In England and Wales the increase, according to the last census, was 12 per cent; and in Scotland, 6 per cent; and the density of population was 344 persons to the square mile in England and Wales, and 98 in Scotland.

Distribution of the Soil.—Exclusive of the departments of Savoy and Nice, from which no returns have been received, the soil of France is divided as follows:

Under cultivation—Grain crops,	per cent	28.30
Other crops		5.00
Artificial meadows		5.00
Fallow		10.80
Natural meadows		9.50
Vinyards		4.10
Chesnuts, olives, mulberry, etc		0.20
Pasture and waste lands		13.50
Forest, water, roads, houses, and uncultivated		23.60
		100.00

Live Stock.—The total number of each kind of live stock in France (exclusive of Savoy and Nice) is estimated as follows:

Horses	3,000,000
Asses	400,000
Mules	330,000
Horned cattle	10,094,000
Calves	4,104,000
Sheep and lambs*	35,000,000
Goats and kids	1,400,000
Swine above one year	1,400,000
Sucking pigs and young wild boars	4,000,000

Wheat.—The production of wheat during the period from 1847 to 1861 varied from 23½ million quarters in 1853, to 37¾ million quarters in 1857. In 1861, the year in which the largest area was under wheat cultivation, the produce was only 25¾ million quarters. The greatest yield per acre during the period was in 1857, and the smallest in 1861.

Wine.—The mean annual production of wine in France is 1,089,000,000 gallons. Of this quantity 67 per cent is consumed in the country, leaving 33 per cent for exportation.

Silk.—The production of silk has greatly diminished of late years: the annual average production of cocoons from 1846 to 1852 was 53,000,000 lbs., which had diminished from 1858 to 1861 to 26,500,000 pounds.

Mines.—The production of coal in 1861 was about 8,000,000 tons; of cast iron, 856,000 tons; of wrought iron (merchant), 520,000 tons; of rails, 106,000 tons; of iron plates, 69,000 tons; of iron wire, 24,000 tons; and of steel, 20,000 tons. The value of these was between 18 and £19,000,000. The value of other metals produced was about £2,500,000.

In the period from 1847 to 1859 the average price of coal at the place of production increased 31 per cent, the average price being, in 1859, 10s. 1d. per ton. The price of cast iron made by charcoal and by coal diminished by about 20 per cent during the same period. The price of wrought iron made with charcoal diminished only 7 per cent, while that made with coal decreased by about 23 per cent. France imports annually from 5 to 6,000,000 tons of coal from Belgium, England, and the Rhenish Provinces.

Salt.—The production of salt increased from 572,000 tons in 1847 to 630,000 tons in 1861.

Sugar.—The quantity of home-made sugar entered for consumption doubled during the period from 1847 to 1861, being 52,000,000 kilogrammes in the former year, and 105,000,000 in the latter.

Tobacco.—The increase in the quantity of tobacco manufactured by the government and sold in France in 1860, as compared with 1847, amounted to 10,000,000 kilogrammes, or 22,000,000 lbs.

Machinery.—Connected with the productive power of the country, as

* Only between one-fourth and one-fifth of the total number of sheep are of the ordinary kind, the remainder being Merinos or of mixed breed.

taking the place of so many able-bodied workmen, the increase in the steam motive power employed affords some guide as to the progress of the industry of the country. In the year 1847 the total horse-power of machinery so employed was only 145,807, but in 1859 it had increased to 513,092. The increase appears to have been divided generally between the various trades and manufactures of the country.

Means of communication.—The length of river, canal, and railroad communication in France is stated as under—

Rivers	miles	5,899
Canals		2,919
Roads of all kinds		403,650

The tonnage of steam vessels engaged in the river navigation increased from 21,137 tons in 1847 to 33,690 tons in 1859, the largest employment having been 51,094 tons in the year 1857. As might be expected, there was a decline in the number of passengers, from 2½ millions to 1¼ million, consequent upon the increased facilities of railway accommodation. There was, on the other hand, a large augmentation in the quantity of goods conveyed, viz., from 880,000 tons in 1847 to 2,616,000 tons in 1859.

Railways.—On the 31st December, 1861, 6,269 miles of railway were open in France, against 1,136 miles on the 31st December, 1847. The statistics of the number of passengers and weight of goods conveyed only come down to the year 1859. The increase in that year over 1847 was 39,500,000 passengers; the total in 1859 being 52,500,000; and the increase in goods traffic 16,250,000 tons; the total weight conveyed in 1859, being about 20,000,000 tons.

Post-office.—The number of letters sent by the post more than doubled between 1847 and 1861, being 126,000,000 in the former year and 274,000,000 in the latter. In the same year the number of printed papers transmitted by the post were 90,000,000 in 1847 and 189,000,000 in 1861. The total receipts were £1,920,000 in 1847, and £2,440,000 in 1861.

Electric Telegraphs.—In the year 1851 only 9,014 private messages were despatched, producing a receipt of £3,080; and in the year 1860 no less 711,652 messages were sent, and £165,760 received. Of the total number in 1860, 562,531 messages were used in France, and 149,121 sent to foreign countries.

Coinage.—The total value of gold coined in France in the period from 1847 to 1861 inclusive, was £181,693,000, and of silver, £30,235,000.

Savings Banks.—The total number of savings banks in 1847 was 345, and the number of accounts open on the 31st December, in the same year, 736,591. In 1860 the number of banks increased to 433, and the accounts open to 1,218,122.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STATE OF TRADE—SPECULATIONS—STOCKS OF GOODS—NUMBER OF STORES—DIMINISHED DEMAND—GOODS TURNED INTO PAPER—DEPRESSION OF FARMING INTERESTS—RELATIVE PRICES—FALL OF GOODS—IMPORTS—DUTIES—EXPORTS—BALANCE—TRAVELLERS—INVESTMENTS—SPECIE MOVEMENT—CALIFORNIA—EXCHANGE—RATES—DISBURSEMENTS—DEBT—CONVERSIONS—1-YEAR CERTIFICATES—PRICES OF STOCKS—UNITED STATES DEBT—ANNUAL INTEREST—MANNER OF INCREASE OF DEBT—STOCKS.

THERE has been during the past month much depression in general business, and, to some extent, a panic among holders of goods, who have been disappointed in the expected demand for consumption. The rapid rise in exchange early in the year caused an active demand for all descriptions of goods. Holders were not disposed to sell, and buyers were very anxious to get into stock, in view of the depreciation of paper. This speculative feeling was anticipating a large demand for consumption at prices proportionate to the extravagant rise in goods. That demand, however, did not take place, since the usual effect of an extravagant rise in prices manifested itself in an indisposition on the part of the public to purchase. The weak holders of goods not meeting the usual demand, and being caught in a counter speculation for a rise in government paper, or, as the speculators expressed it, for a fall in gold, there was great pressure to sell goods through the auction shops, and that at a decline of some 25 per cent. These ruinous fluctuations in business and the value of goods are the direct results of an unstable currency; but at every oscillation the moment of ultimate discredit is hastened. The real capital of the country is being rapidly used up, since the production is small and the old stocks diminishing through consumption. There were, according to the returns of the Mercantile Agency, 190,000 stores in operation in the Northern States in 1861. Of these, 5,000 failed at an average liability of $60,000. The average stocks of goods held by all the stores may be estimated at $10,000, which would give a value of goods equal to $1,900,000,000, or in round numbers $2,000,000,000, on hand. A very considerable proportion of these goods was "dead stock," or such as from lapse of time, etc., had become difficult of sale in face of constant supplies of fresh and seasonable goods. The first effect of the paper inflation was to make those goods more active and bring them into consumption, instead of the high priced new goods. This operation was not duly weighed by the speculators in goods at first hands, and the diminished demand is very serious. It is also the case that the shop-keepers, while thus reducing their old stocks to the smallest practicable limit, buy very sparingly and only of such articles as are absolutely necessary to meet current consumption. The consumers of goods, in their turn, buy very sparingly and dispense altogether with many articles.

If, now, the stocks of goods throughout the country are reduced by this process one half, or $1,000,000,000 or $50 per head of each person, it will be observed that the store-keepers have realized that amount of money from goods before idle, and that money they will not reinvest in the way of their trade at high prices, because of the frequent violent fluctuations.

They seek for their capital some means of safe and permanent investment. The money which has been taken for goods is government paper, and the indisposition to reinvest it in goods makes it apparently very abundant, and it is attracted only into railroad and other stocks. It is obvious that this process must have an end, which will give signs of its approach in a positive dearth of goods, brought about by non-importation and non-production. The depreciation of the paper will then go on in the double process of increased supply and dearth of commodities.

The ability of the great agricultural classes to consume goods is very small, since the rise in their produce bears no proportion to the advance in the supplies they purchase. We may turn to the Cincinnati market in illustration.

		1861.		1862.	
Mess pork	bbl.	$16 70		$13 25	
Corn	bush.	50		51	
Wheat		1 05		1 20	
			$18 25		$14 96
Coffee, Rio, per lb. 14 cts.	50 lbs.	= $7 00	At 33 cts.	$16 50	
Sugar, N.O. " 7 "	"	3 50	" 12 "	6 00	
Cottons, per yd. 11 "	70 yds.	7 70	" 40 "	28 00	
			$18 20		$50 50

Thus in 1861 the farmer, for 1 bbl. pork, 1 bush. corn, and 1 bush. wheat, could get in Cincinnati 100 lbs. of sugar and coffee and 70 yards of shirting. To obtain the same articles now, he must give 2 bbls. pork, 20 bush. corn, and 14 bush. wheat, or, in other words, a bbl. of pork, in 1861, was worth 240 lbs. of coffee; it is now worth 40 lbs. A bbl. of pork was then worth, in Cincinnati, 154 yards of shirting; it is now worth 33 yards. These figures indicate how severely the rise in goods presses upon the consuming classes, and therefore how great must be the reaction upon the demand in first hands. It is to be borne in mind that this state of things takes place after a year of the most extraordinary exports of grain, when prices ought to have been higher. The quantity has been so great, however, in consequence of the closing of the rivers, as to counteract the effect of the currency upon produce. The usual influence of such a state of affairs has been to produce that extraordinary abundance of money which has so long prevailed, at the same time that the import trade begins to flag. The amount of imports for the month has been as follows:

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Entered for Consumption.	Entered for Warehouse.	Total.
January	$101,906	$2,413,649	$8,741,227	$4,482,794	$15,739,676
February	213,971	783,561	7,372,539	3,657,775	12,027,846
March	123,616	1,328,806	11,461,572	3,454,530	16,370,524
April	107,061	1,328,216	9,493,830	6,456,208	17,385,315
Total 4 months	$600,554	$5,854,232	$37,069,168	$15,293,396	$61,523,261
" 1862	341,144	6,758,331	34,716,535	12,690,406	57,974,120

The quantity of goods sent into warehouse was large in April. The value imported was indeed large under the influence of the activity of February; but that had passed away on the arrival of the goods, and they went into warehouse, to some extent, perhaps, for re-shipment. The

duties for the month were $3,957,198 on $13,626,463 worth of goods, being an average of about 30 per cent, against $4,140,952 of duties, or an average of 35 per cent, last year. The exports from the port have been as follows:

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
January.....	$4,624,574	$73,111	$668,275	$14 829,398	$19,695,351
February..... ...	3,965,664	43,889	610,009	17,780,586	22,400,148
March.....	6,385,442	213,685	758,266	16,137,689	23,695,082
April.....	1,972,834	74,949	375,224	11,581,983	14,004,940
Total 4 months	$17,148,514	$405,634	$2,411,774	$59,829,606	$79,795,521
" 1862....	12,944,001	197,497	1,424,845	56,249,767	53,685,791

The exports of the month have suffered some diminution by reason of the declining prices abroad and the decline in exchange, accompanied by a rise in freights. From the sum of the domestic exports for April must be deducted one third for depreciation of currency, and there remains about $10,000,000, as the cash value realized to meet an import value of $17,000,000, showing an apparent adverse balance of some $5,000,000 after the shipments in coin. This has to some extent been met by the realization of exchange held on speculation. There has been also some diminution of the amount of money required to be remitted abroad for the use of Americans there residing, since the high rate which they are compelled to pay for exchange diminishes their revenues one third and compels many to return. There has also been some reinvestments of foreign capital here, for the reason that, after getting interest the last year in paper, they would now lose one third the principal by withdrawing it; hence it is re-loaned for a term of years in the hope of resumption of specie payments, although the interest may during some years be paid in depreciated paper.

The specie movement during the month has been as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1862. Received.	1862. Exported.	1863. Received.	1863. Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold.
January 3.	.....	442,147	.....	681,448	35,954,550	34¼ a 34⅜
" 10.	885,928	1,035,025	1,277,788	726,746	36,770,746	34 a 39
" 17.	.....	547,703	.....	1,380,247	37,581,465	40 a 49
" 24.	627,767	322,918	678,841	780,816	38,549,794	47 a 50⅜
" 31.	.....	310,484	.....	1,331,027	38,894,840	48⅜ a 60½
February 7.	854,000	976,235	801,860	1,277,000	38,243,839	57½ a 57½
" 14.	614,146	1,156,154	359,978	1,152,646	38,426,460	53½ a 53½
" 21.	759,247	934,512	.....	520,017	37,981,310	54 a 64
" 28.	741,109	510,774	285,394	1,377,016	39,512,256	71 a 72
March 7.	679,074	585,236	1,248,551	733,643	39,705,089	52½ a 53
" 14.	677,058	477,335	.....	3,540,550	36,110,085	54½ a 54½
" 21.	.....	540,968	249,514	1,201,907	33,955,122	53 a 54½
" 28.	490,368	779,564	159,105	1,050,156	34,317,691	41 a 42
April 4.	581,293	673,826	250,778	473,385	34,257,121	53 a 54
" 11.	.....	1,505,728	250,728	607,059	35,406,145	46 a 52½
" 18.	617,279	693,486	217,602	158,437	36,761,696	52 a 53½
" 25.	635,546	1,151,300	256,604	629,855	37,175,067	47 a 51½
May 2.	410,804	712,275	.....	294,998	36,846,528	48 a 50½
" 9.	484,019	1,574,166	205,057	451,827	38,102,633	58½ a 47
" 16.	604,632	1,093,031	.....	661,996	38,556,552	49 a 49½
Total....	9,642,315	14,822,793	6,275,138	17,017,221	.....	

The receipts from California continued small, and the exports also declined. The disposition to realise bills caused a decline from the specie basis of bills in some cases. The rate in coin had been 110¾ premium, and for paper the price was the premium of gold added. Some houses were disposed to sell at less than 110¾ for coin, for a short time, since the supply of bills drawn against gold shipped direct from California was greater, and those bills could be sold less than if drawn against shipments of gold from New York. The shipments of specie hence, however, continued to exceed the receipts. The rates of exchange were as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 3,	146 a 147½	3.85 a 3.80	56 a 56½	56 a 56½	49½ a 49½	98 a 98½
" 10,	149 a 152	3.72½ a 3.67½	56 a 58	57½ a 58½	50½ a 51½	99 a 100
" 17,	160 a 162	3.52½ a 3 45	60½ a 61½	61 a 62½	54 a 55½	108 a 110
" 24,	162½ a 163	3.50 a 3.45	61 a 61½	61½ a 62	54 a 54¾	107 a 108½
" 31,	171 a 177	3.32 a 3.15	65½ a 66½	65 a 67	57 a 58¾	114 a 117
Feb. 7,	169 a 173	3.30 a 3.25	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	57 a 57¾	114 a 116
" 14,	170 a 171	3.32 a 3.27	65 a 65½	65 a 65½	56¾ a 57½	113½ a 114½
" 21,	171 a 179½	2.20 a 3 12	67 a 68½	68 a 68½	59 a 60½	118½ a 119½
" 28,	185 a 188	3.10 a 3.00	67½ a 71	70 a 71	61¾ a 62½	123 a 124
Mar. 7,	167 a 169	3.37½ a 3.30	64 a 64	65 a 66	55 a 55½	111 a 113
" 14,	168 a 171	3.35 a 3.30	64 a 64	64½ a 65½	55¾ a 56¾	112 a 114
" 21,	169½ a 171½	3.37½ a 3.27½	63½ a 63½	63½ a 64½	56 a 57	113 a 114
" 28,	157 a 161	3.57 a 3 47	61 a 62	61 a 62	53 a 54	107 a 108
April 4,	168 a 172	3.40 a 3.25	62½ a 63½	62½ a 64	55½ a 57	111 a 111
" 11,	158 a 162	3.55 a 3.45	61 a 62	61 a 62	53½ a 54½	106 a 108
" 18,	165 a 167½	3.37½ a 3.45	62½ a 62¾	62½ a 63	54½ a 55½	108 a 110
" 25,	163 a 165	3.47½ a 3.50	61 a 61½	61½ a 62	53¾ a 54¾	107 a 108
May 2,	163 a 165	3.47½ a 3.42	61½ a 62½	61½ a 62½	53½ a 54½	107 a 108
" 9,	168 a 170	3.42½ a 3.42	62½ a 63	62½ a 63½	55½ a 56½	110 a 112
" 16,	162½ a 164	3.50 a 3.45	61½ a 62	61¾ a 62½	54 a 55	107 a 109

The disbursements of the Federal Government, added to the general realisation of goods, and the indisposition to sell on credit, caused a continued increase in the abundance of money, and this fact manifested itself in increased stock speculations. The Treasury Department did not make any decided movement towards a more regular financial policy, but it effected the negotiation of some of the $500,000,000 of 5-20 bonds authorized. It will be remembered that the law authorizing these bonds restricted the sale to market value, and allowed of their conversion at par for greenbacks. The Secretary in his annual report stated that these provisions were obstacles to the negotiation, because they allowed no profit to large jobbers, and asked for their repeal. This request was complied with, and the Secretary was allowed to make such private bargains as he deemed good. Soon after his visit to New York, the conversions were represented as large, but at what rates he had made private bargains was not known. Between April 1st and May 28th, $47,000,000 of 1-year certificates fell due, and were paid. This large amount of money found employment in deposit certificates, and to some extent in conversions, Many new 1-year certificates were issued, but the interest, as well as that on the deposits, is no longer paid in gold. The prices of government stocks were as follows:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

		6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	1 year certif. Old.	1 year certif. New.	Gold.	August demand notes.
January	3,..	96¼	98	88¼	102¼	96¼	...	84¼ a 84¾	29
"	10,..	97¾	98	90	103	97	...	87¾ a 88	85
"	17,..	91¾	91¾	88¾	101	95	...	49 a 46¾	43
"	24,.	95	96	90	102	96	...	47 a 48¼	44¾
"	31,..	92½	94	86	101½	94	...	55 a 60¾	53
February	7,..	92	93¾	85½	102	94	...	57½ a 57½	55
"	14,..	94	96	87¾	102½	96	...	53½ a 53½	51
"	21,..	96½	97¾	91½	103½	95	...	53½ a 64	62
"	28,..	100½	102½	97	105½	98¾	...	71 a 71½	71
March	7,..	99¾	100¾	94¾	105	98½	...	52½ a 53	53
"	14,..	104½	104½	98	106½	100	...	54½ a 54½	53
"	21,..	103¾	104½	96	107	100	...	54½ a 54½	..
"	28,...	104½	105	96½	106½	100	...	41 a 41½	..
April	4,...	104½	105	97½	104¾	99	...	53 a 53½	..
"	11,...	104½	105	97½	105	100½	...	46 a 52½	..
"	18,...	104	105	96	105	101	...	53 a 53½	..
"	25,...	105	105	96	106	102	99½	151½ a 151½	..
May	2,...	105½	106½	97½	106½	102	99½	150 a 150¾	..
"	9,...	106	107	97	106	101½	99½	152½ a 152½	..
"	16,...	108	108	97¾	107	101¾	99¾	149 a 149¾	..

The public debt at different periods has been as follows:

UNITED STATES NATIONAL DEBT.

	Dec., 1861.	*May*, 1862.	*July*, 1862.	*Jan.*, 1863.	*May* 8, 1863.
Stocks.....5 per cent	$30,595,092	$30,395,092	$30,595,092	$30,395,092	$30,595,092
Stocks.....6 per cent	89,929,856	90,800,406	90,620,555	87,765,191	87,780,009
Stocks, 5-20.....6 per cent	.....	2,699,400	18,974,950	25,050,850	81,452,812
Bonds.....7 3-10 per cent	100,000 000	120,523,450	122,836,550	139,996,950	139,996,950
Treasury notes.....6 per cent	22,464,762	3,882,162	2,880,641	3,267,511	2,700,000
One-year certificates....6 per cent	.....	47,199.000	49,881,980	110,321,241	150,231,126
Deposits demand....4 a 5 per cent	.....	50,778,567	57,746,106	80,225,636	100,000,000
Paper money.....	24,550,320	145,880,000	149,660,000	244,366,251	399,900,956
Total.....	$267,540,035	$491,448,984	$514,211,871	$721,668,727	$992,381,896

The general stock market continued to show the most active excitement up to the second week in May, when the high prices created uneasiness. Brokers required large margins from clients, and many refused to lend at all on fancy stocks. The market then gradually gave way, while money became in active demand to carry stocks. The deposits for conversion continued, under the interest created by the private takers of the stock from the government. The table of debt shows that since May last year the debt has increased $501,000,000, of which $400,000,000 has been paper money and temporary debt. There have been organized a number of banks under the new banking law, from the multiplication of which a demand for government stocks is hoped for. The limit of the law is $300,000,000 in bank notes, and should all of them be issued, it is inferred that they will supplant the old bank notes entirely.

SAVINGS BANKS—THEIR HISTORY.

UNCLAIMED DEPOSITS AND SURPLUS MONEYS.

THERE are no State institutions more deserving of encouragement, in our opinion, than Savings Banks, for the benefits conferred by them are incalculable. Not only are they useful to the depositor, as places of security for money that might otherwise be lost, stolen, or squandered, but they bring into active employment these various small sums which would have remained unproductive in the hands of private individuals, thus granting facilities to trade and commerce. Probably the wonderful progress our country has made the last fifty years is owing as much to the combination or co-operation of individual capital, brought about by just such means, as to any other single cause. We find much useful and interesting information respecting Savings Institutions in a report prepared by WM. D. MURPHY, Esq., of New York, from which we have drawn largely for what follows.

HISTORY OF SAVINGS BANKS IN EUROPE.

The first savings bank is claimed to have been founded at Hamburg, in Germany, as early as 1778, though it had generally been supposed that the first institution of the kind was formed at Berne, in Switzerland, in 1789.

The credit of introducing them in Great Britain is claimed on behalf of several different persons; but there doubtless may be earlier unrecorded instances of arrangements having been made to receive small savings from the poor and to return them on demand with interest.

In 1798, a "Friendly Society for the Benefit of Women and Children," was established at Tottenham High Cross, under the superintendence of Mrs. PRISCILLA WAKEFIELD; and before 1801 there had been combined with its main design to other objects, viz., a fund for loans and a *bank for savings*. In 1804, this bank for savings was more regularly organized, and trustees were appointed. A prior claim, however, is raised in behalf of the Rev. JOSEPH SMITH, of Wendover, who, in 1799, circulated in his parish proposals to receive any sums on deposit during the summer, and "to return the amount at Christmas, with the addition of one-third to the whole as a bounty upon the depositors' economy."

The society next formed, of which we have any account, was opened in 1808, at Bath, for receiving deposits from female servants, and was instituted chiefly through the instrumentality of ladies. Previous to this, however, the Provident Institution of London was established, in 1806.

In 1810, the first savings bank, in Scotland, was formed, by the Rev. HENRY DUNCAN, minister of Ruthwell, Dumfrieshire. Various interesting papers were published by him on the subject of establishing banks for savings in the different parishes of the country, and the regular and simple organization of his "Parish Bank" served as a model for other institutions. He communicated the rules by which it was governed to the Edinburgh Society for the suppression of Mendicity, and the result was the establishment, in 1814, of the Edinburgh Savings Bank. Similar institutions were about the same time commenced at Kelso and Howick, and in November, 1815, the Provident Institution of Southampton was established.

The first publication in England of the idea of savings banks is also attributed to the celebrated JEREMY BENTHAM, in whose well known schemes for the management of paupers, in 1797, was included a system of frugality banks, as he called them. The suggestions, however, of Mr. Bentham were ne ver acted upon.

PATRICK COLQUHOUN, who died in 1820, one of the police magistrates in London, and the author of many tracts for the amelioration of the condition of the poor, and who, during the latter part of the last and the beginning of the present century, was actively engaged in many of the benevolent institutions of that metropolis, published in 1806, his "Treatise on Indigence," in which he recommended provident banks upon a national plan. "The idea of such institutions," he says, in a letter to THOMAS EDDY, of New York, dated the 20th of February, 1818, "originated with me; had my plan been adopted in 1806 I am certain that not less than *seven millions sterling* of the property of the laboring classes would have now been yielding interest."

The first act of legislation on the subject of saving banks in Great Britain was passed in 1817, and up to the time of the passage of that act there had been formed by the voluntary association of benevolent persons, not less than seventy banks in England, four in Wales, and four in Irela d During that year acts were passed by Parliament offering every encouragement to these institutions, and making arrangement to take all moneys deposited, and place them in the public funds. Interest was then paid by the government upon moneys thus invested, at the rate, at first, of £4 per cent, which was afterwards reduced to £3 5s. per cent. This interest being greater, however, than that yielded by the securities in which the deposits were invested, entailed upon the public exchequer a loss of about four and a-half millions sterling.

The first act affecting Scottish banks was not passed until 1818.

On the 20th of November, 1858, there were in the United Kingdom 606 savings banks, with 1,261 paid and 621 unpaid officers; 1,398,886 depositors, and £35,757,455 on deposit.

In France, on the 1st of January, 1859, there were 379 savings banks in operation; 30 more had been authorized by the government, but were not yet opened.

There are savings banks in Brussels, Liege, Tourna, and in several other towns in Belgium. Switzerland, however, is entitled to the credit of having established the oldest savings bank of those now existing in Europe, the one at Turich having been in operation since 1805. The most considerable bank in Switzerland is that founded by M. TROUCHIN.

In Hamburg there is one savings bank, which has six district banks in the city, and three in the country, placed in convenient localities.

On the 31st of December, 1857, there were 405 savings banks in Prussia; in the same year there were 127 in operation in Holland; and at the end of the year 1858 there were reported to be 130 in Sweden. In Russia there are but two, one at St. Petersburg and another at Moscow.

The savings banks in Holland, however, are wholly private undertakings, although they are considered benevolent institutions, and their directors are required by an article of the poor-law to make annual returns of their operations. In Austria they are established either by joint-stock companies or by civic corporations, but are all placed under the supervision of government.

SAVINGS BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The first savings banks established in the United States were, as early as 1816, organized in Salem, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. An unsuccessful effort was made the same year to establish one in the city of New York. Mr. THOMAS EDDY, who had been for many years a correspondent of PATRICK COLQUHOUN, from whom he received a letter, dated April 19, 1816, calling his attention to the formation of a "Provident Institution or Savings Bank" in London, was doubtless the first to suggest the idea of such an institution. A meeting of citizens of New York was called through the public papers, and was held at the City Hall, on the 29th of November, 1816. Mr. EDDY presided, and after resolving that it was expedient to establish a savings bank for the city of New York, a constitution was submitted and adopted by the meeting. On the 17th of the following month, officers and directors were elected, among whom were DEWITT CLINTON, CADWALLADER D. COLDEN, THOMAS EDDY, JOHN PINTARD, BROCKHOLST LIVINGSTON, WILLIAM FEN, WILLIAM BAYARD, PETER A. JAY, JOHN MURRAY, Jr, and other distinguished citizens. DEWITT CLINTON was appointed chairman of a committee to draft an address to the public, on the subject of such an organization. The address was afterwards adopted and printed for circulation. It was considered necessary to apply to the Legislature for an act of incorporation; but, "in consequence of the principles not being distinctly comprehended and the preponderating objection against the incorporation of any more banks, with which, not only this, but almost every other State in the Union were inundated, whereby serious consequences were apprehended," the application to the Legislature, in 1817, failed.

The subject of a savings bank, however, was renewed by the "Society for the prevention of pauperism in the city of New York," which was instituted in 1818. A committee of that society made a report, on the 2d of December of the same year, on the great importance and utility of a savings bank, illustrated by the successful experience of similar institutions in Salem, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and on the expediency of applying to the Legislature, at the ensuing session, for an act of incorporation; which application was successfully made, and an act of incorporation obtained. The act passed on the 26th of March, 1819, and the institution was entitled the "Savings Bank in the city of New York."

This was the first savings bank established in the State of New York; it commenced business on the 3d of July, 1819, in a room in the basement of the New York Institution, on Chambers street, which was destroyed by fire in 1857, and is now the site of the new City Hall, in course of erection. The trustees subsequently built a substantial banking house on Chambers-street, nearly opposite its first location, and afterwards disposed of that property, and erected another banking house on the same street, west of Church-street. The march of improvement and the convenience of depositors, however, induced the trustees to also dispose of that property, and finally located in their present substantial and beautiful banking house, on Bleecker-street, near Broadway.

The history of this well-managed institution, and of the many good deeds of its distinguished founders, constitutes one of the brightest pages in the financial records of the State. The names of CLINTON, COLDEN, EDDY, MURRAY, PINTARD, JAY, and other philanthropists were a sure guarantee of the purely benevolent character of the proposed institution, and of the public

spirit and singleness of purpose with which they intended it should be administered; an intention which has doubtless, so far, for the last forty-four years, been happily carried out. It has now become the largest savings bank in the United States, and occupies a leading position among the most carefully managed and successful financial institutions in the world. Its number of accounts on the 1st of January, 1863, were 50,573; and the amount of its deposits $9,587,112 34; with its assets, amounting to $10,259,589 10.

SAVINGS BANKS NOW IN OPERATION IN THE STATE.

Such is a brief history of the oldest savings bank in the State. It is not necessary to speak in detail of those which have since been chartered, and which have generally been modeled after the above institution. We give, however, a list of the savings banks incorporated by the State and now in operation, with the dates of their incorporation, and in the order in which they have been chartered. It is as follows:

1819. Mch. 26, Bank for Savings in the city of New York.
1820. Mch. 24, Albany Savings Bank.
1823. April 23, Troy Savings Bank.
1827. April 7, Brooklyn Savings Bank.
1829. Jan'y 31, Seaman's Bank for Savings, New York.
1831. April 16, Po'keepeie Savings Bank.
April 21, Rochester Savings Bank.
1833. April 24, Greenwich Savings Bank, New York.
1834. April 29, Schenectady Sav'gs Bank.
May 1, Bowery Sv'gs Bank, N. Y.
1839. April 26, Savings Bank of Utica.
1846. May 9, Buffalo Savings Bank.
1848. April 11, East River Savings Institution, New York.
April 12, Institution for the Savings of Merchants' Clerks, and others, New York.
May 12, Dry Dock Savings Institution, New York.
1849. Mch. 12, Auburn Sv'gs Institution.
Mch. 30, Syracuse Sv'gs Institution.
1850. Mch. 29, Albany City Savings Institution.
April 8, Monroe County Savings Institution, Rochester.
April 10, South Brooklyn Savings Institution.
April 10, Manhattan Savings Institution, New York.
April 10, Emigrant Industrial Savings Institution, N. Y.
1851. April 9, Williamsburgh Savings Bank, Brooklyn.
April 10, Niagara County Savings Bank, Lockport.
April 11, Cohoes Savings Bank.
April 12, Ulster County Savings Bank, Kingston.
June 20, Broadway Savings Institution, New York.
1851. June 20, Central City Savings Institution, Utica
June 30, Rome Savings Bank.
July 1, Irving Savings Institution, New York.
July 9, Western Savings Bank of Buffalo.
1852. April 13, Newburgh Savings Bank.
April 16, Mariners' Savings Institution, New York.
April 16, Mechanics' and Traders' Savings Bank, N. Y.
1853. June 4, Sixpenny Savings Bank, New York.
July 18, Brockport Savings Bank.
July 21, Westchester County Savings Bank, Tarrytown.
1854. Mch. 9, Sing Sing Savings Bank.
April 10, Erie County Sav'gs Bank Buffalo.
April 13, Yonkers Savings Bank.
April 17, Bloomingdale, now Third Avenue, Savings Bank.
April 17, Rose Hill, now New York, Savings Bank, N. Y.
April 17, Sixpenny Savings Bank of Albany.
April 17, Elmira Savings Bank.
1855. April 10, Onondaga County Savings Bank, Syracuse.
April 12, Commercial Sav'gs Bank of Troy.
April 12, Mechanics' and Farmers' Bank of Albany.
April 12, Union Savings Bank of Albany.
1856. April 18, Albany Exchange Savings Bank.
April 18, State Sv'gs Bank of Troy.
1857. Feb'y 25, Fishkill Sv'gs Institution.
April 15, Manufacturers' Savings Bank, Troy.
April 15, Mutual Sv'gs Bank, Troy.

1857. April 15, Central Sv'gs, Bank Troy.
1858. April 17, Emigrant Savings Bank of Buffalo.
April 17, Southold Savings Bank.
1859. Mch. 4, Oswego City Sv'gs Bank.
April 5, Jefferson County Savings Bank, Watertown.
April 9, German Sv'gs Bank, N. Y.
April 12, Union Dime Sav'gs Bank, New York.
April 12, Dime Savings Bank of Brooklyn.
April 14, Queens Co. Savings Bank.
April 18, Peekskill Savings Bank.
1860. Mch. 5, Corning Savings Bank.
1860. Mch. 17, Chenango County Savings Bank, Norwich.
Mch. 5, Citizens' Savings Bank, New York.
April 10, Kings County Savings Bank, Brooklyn.
April 10, Rockland County Savings Bank, Piermont.
April 11, Atlantic Savings Bank, New York.
April 12, Rhinebeck Sav'gs Bank.
April 12, Sag Harbor Sav'gs Bank.
April 14, Franklin Savings Bank, New York.
April 17, East Brookl'n Sv'gs Bank.

It will be seen from the foregoing statements that the number of savings institutions chartered by our Legislature, previous to the 1st of January, 1863, was one hundred and one. Of this number seventy-one were in operation at that date, of which latter number, fifty-one had been in operation five years on the 1st of July, 1862.

UNCLAIMED MONEYS.

The subject of unclaimed moneys, supposed to be lying in the several savings banks in the State, has been, for many years, inside and outside of the Legislature, a fruitful source of discussion. The public press has, periodically, teemed with articles on the subject, and year after year, bills and propositions have been introduced into the Legislature proposing to transfer these unclaimed moneys to the custody of the State, supposing them to amount to millions. But whatever may be the power of the Legislature as to the disposition of the money itself, the amount is clearly not as large as it has generally been supposed to be. No doubt many have confounded the surplus moneys of our savings banks with the unclaimed deposits, and to this fact, probably, may be attributed the extravagant ideas that have been so prevalent in the public mind upon the subject of the latter.

As to what should be understood by the expression "unclaimed moneys," there has been considerable uncertainty, but we think it should include all moneys embraced in accounts upon which there has been no deposit or draft, or the interest upon which has not been entered upon the pass book, within a certain specified period. Unless one of these three transactions has taken place upon the account within the period specified, the money may be considered as unclaimed.

The length of time an account should remain unacted upon, in the manner required, before the money embraced therein should be considered as unclaimed, is a question upon which legislatures have disagreed. By the act of 1835, which was the first legislation on the subject, it was two years; by that of 1839 it was three years, and according to the recommendation of the special committee of the Assembly, in 1859, it was twenty years. The various propositions introduced into the Legislature, from year to year, to transfer unclaimed moneys to the custody of the State, specified various different periods, ranging from two to ten years and upwards. This Committee reported all moneys unclaimed for five years as the minimum period, with the amount embraced in the sum reported for that period which had been unclaimed successively for ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty-five, and thirty years, and so on as long as the institution may have been in existence. By

this arrangement the precise amount unclaimed for each successive period of five years was ascertained, making five years the minimum, and the length of time the institution may have been in existence over five years the maximum period.

BANKS EXAMINED—UNCLAIMED FOR FIVE YEARS.

The following is an alphabetical list of the savings banks examined by the committee, which have been in existence over five years, with the amount of moneys in each, unclaimed for five, and under ten years, prior to the 1st of July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$49,904 29
Albany City Savings Institution	3,244 05
Auburn Savings Institution	.....
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	181,791 57
Bowery Savings Bank, New York	82,911 22
Broadway Savings Institution, New York	12,651 37
Brooklyn Savings Bank	35,952 41
Buffalo Savings Bank	14,534 95
Commercial Savings Bank of Troy	.....
Dry Dock Savings Institution, New York	.....
East River Savings Institution, New York	5,939 14
Emigrant Industrial Savings Institution, New York	16,094 89
Erie County Savings Bank, Buffalo	828 18
Greenwich Savings Bank, New York	42,594 54
Institution for the Savings of Merchants' Clerks and others, New York	35,884 24
Irving Savings Institution, New York	19,723 14
Manufacturers' Savings Bank, Troy	5,929 72
Mechanics' and Farmers' Savings Bank, Albany	.....
Mechanics' and Traders' Savings Institution, New York	11,958 72
Manhattan Savings Institution, New York	31,674 91
Mariners' Savings Institution, New York	31 78
Monroe County Savings Institution, Rochester	2,828 59
Newburgh Savings Bank	.....
New York Savings Bank, New York	1,557 71
Onondaga County Savings Bank	.....
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	1,088 30
Rochester Savings Bank	19,840 25
Savings Bank of Utica	2,065 60
Seamen's Bank for Savings, New York	156,671 38
Schenectady Savings Bank	20,440 30
Sixpenny Savings Bank, New York	.....
South Brooklyn Savings Institution	3,230 37
State Savings Bank of Troy	.....
Syracuse Savings Institution	.....
Third Avenue Savings Bank, New York	275 22
Troy Savings Bank	15,521 64
Ulster County Savings Bank, Kingston	.....
Western Savings Bank of Buffalo	691 65
Westchester County Savings Bank, Tarrytown	.....
Williamsburgh Savings Bank, Brooklyn	3,672 49
Total, five years	$779,542 87

UNCLAIMED FOR TEN YEARS.

The following is an alphabetical list of the above banks which have been in existence over ten years, with the several amounts unclaimed in each, for ten and less than fifteen years, prior to the 1st of July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$44,751 25
Albany City Savings Institution	.....
Auburn Savings Institution	.....
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	131,092 69
Bowery Savings Bank, New York	11,129 02
Broadway Savings Institution, New York	.....
Brooklyn Savings Bank	3,683 36
Buffalo Savings Bank	2,540 64
Dry Dock Savings Institution, New York	.....
East River Savings Institution, New York	981 30
Emigrant Industrial Savings Institution, New York	.....
Greenwich Savings Bank, New York	5,158 36
Institution for the Savings of Merchants' Clerks and others, New York	5,218 55
Irving Savings Institution, New York	363 71
Mechanics' and Traders' Savings Institution, New York	.....
Manhattan Savings Institution, New York	4,127 44
Mariners' Savings Institution, New York	.....
Monroe County Savings Institution, Rochester	401 39
Newburgh Savings Bank	.....
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	706 93
Rochester Savings Bank	3,372 90
Savings Bank of Utica	682 55
Schenectady Savings Bank	6,972 24
South Brooklyn Savings Institution	127 67
Syracuse Savings Institution	.....
Seamen's Bank for Savings, New York	35,880 10
Troy Savings Bank	963 86
Ulster County Savings Bank, Kingston	.....
Western Savings Bank of Buffalo	213 52
Williamsburgh Savings Bank, Brooklyn	10 09
Total, ten years	$257,363 71

UNCLAIMED FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

The following is an alphabetical list of the above banks which have been in existence over fifteen years, with the several amounts unclaimed in each for fifteen and less than twenty years, prior to the 1st July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$8,999 66
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	100,015 97
Bowery Savings Bank	2,199 96
Brooklyn Savings Bank	3,683 36
Buffalo Savings Bank	31 56
Greenwich Savings Bank	1,113 96
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	25 53
Rochester Savings Bank	1,048 45
Seamen's Bank for Savings, New York	8,482 62
Schenectady Savings Bank	3,253 43
Savings Bank of Utica	29 10
Troy Savings Bank	963 86
Total, fifteen years	$129,847 46

UNCLAIMED FOR TWENTY YEARS.

The following is an alphabetical list of those in existence over twenty years, with the several amounts in each unclaimed for twenty and less than twenty-five years, prior to 1st July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$3,760 16
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	74,306 95
Bowery Savings Bank	2,199 96
Brooklyn Savings Bank	144 86

Greenwich Savings Bank, New York	586 81
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	None.
Rochester Savings Bank	503 12
Seamen's Bank for Savings, New York	5,220 82
Schenectady Savings Bank	1,293 42
Savings Bank of Utica	None.
Troy Savings Bank	937 94
Total, twenty years	$89,227 04

UNCLAIMED FOR TWENTY FIVE YEARS.

The following have been in existence over twenty-five years, with the several amounts thereto attached, in each, unclaimed for twenty-five years and less than thirty, prior to the 1st July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$1,683 75
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	55,220 19
Bowery Savings Bank, New York	None.
Brooklyn Savings Bank	144 86
Greenwich Savings Bank, New York	229 44
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	None.
Rochester Savings Bank	None.
Seamen's Bank for Savings, New York	3,557 78
Schenectady Savings Bank	269 93
Troy Savings Bank	527 51
Total, twenty-five years	$61,633 46

UNCLAIMED FOR THIRTY YEARS.

The following have been in existence over thirty years, with the several amounts thereto attached, in each, unclaimed for thirty years and less than thirty-five, prior to the 1st July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$1,583 44
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	28,282 61
Brooklyn Savings Bank	96 36
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	None.
Rochester Savings Banks	None.
Seamen's Bank for Savings, New York	1,339 52
Troy Savings Bank	527 51
Total, thirty-years	$32,829 44

UNCLAIMED FOR THIRTY-FIVE YEARS.

The following have been in existence over thirty-five years, with the several amounts thereto attached, in each, unclaimed for thirty-five years and less than forty, prior to the 1st July, 1862:

Albany Savings Banks	$1,155 14
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	12,222 32
Troy Savings Bank	466 51
Total, thirty-five years	$13,843 97

UNCLAIMED FOR FORTY YEARS.

The following have been in existence over forty years, being the two oldest savings banks in the State, with the amounts thereto attached, in each, unclaimed for forty years and upwards, prior to the 1st July, 1862:

Albany Savings Bank	$1,046 39
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	2,428 69
Total, forty years	$3,475 08

RECAPITULATION.

	No. of banks.	Amount of unclaimed money.
For five years	40	$779,542 87
For ten years	30	257,363 71
For fifteen years	12	129,847 46
For twenty years	11	89,227 04
For twenty-five years	10	61,635 46
For thirty years	6	32,329 44
For thirty-five years	3	13,843 97
For forty years	2	3,475 08

Thus it will be seen that the aggregate amount of the unclaimed deposits in the savings banks for five years is only $779,542 87, and of that amount only $89,227 04 has been unclaimed for a period of twenty years. A very large proportion of the sum reported as unclaimed for five years is, really, as much claimed as any other deposits in these institutions. One of the chief objects of a savings bank is to take proper care of the moneys entrusted to its safe keeping, and large amounts are deposited with them in small sums, simply because the depositors have confidence in them as safe custodians of their moneys. Thus it is with guardians and parents who make deposits to the credit of their wards and children for the very purpose of having their money in a place of safety until the latter shall have become of age. Indeed, unless a depositor wishes to make a deposit or draft, there is no reason why he should visit the bank at all, in order that he may be safe in his interest as a depositor. There is no inducement whatever for an active intercourse with the institution. Interest in all savings banks in the State is declared semi-annually, and it matters not whether a depositor presents himself or not, his proportion of interest is entered regularly to his credit upon the books of the institution, and at once becomes a part of the principal. When pass-books are presented after interest has been declared it is entered regularly upon them, but it is simply a matter of convenience to depositors as to when they will present their pass-books for an entry of interest. It would be unwise, therefore, to set down any deposits as unclaimed unless they have remained so at least twenty years; and as to the right of the Legislature to appropriate to itself even such deposits, we believe no such right exists. Besides, even if it did, to exercise it would be the gain to the State of but a paltry sum, and a great loss to institutions of savings throughout the State, by unnecessarily alarming depositors and destroying public confidence.

SURPLUS MONEYS.

The surplus moneys of savings banks are the aggregate amount of a certain per centage, reserved from their gross earnings, for the purpose of preventing or making good to the depositors any loss resulting from a reduction in the market price of the public stock and securities held by them, below the par value thereof. The first legislation on this subject in our State took place in 1831, when the "Bank for Savings in the city of New York" was authorized to accumulate a fund of that kind at the rate of three per cent on the amount of its deposits. In 1836, another act was passed giving the trustees of that institution the right to increase the rate of their accumulating surplus to ten per cent. Prior to 1839 there was no general legislation on the subject, but toward the close of the Legislature in

that year, when there had gone into operation some twelve savings institutions in the State, a law was passed giving all savings banks the right to gradually accumulate such a fund at the rate of ten per cent on the amount of their deposits. Since then this fund has been gradually increasing. On the 1st of January, 1858, it had reached the sum of $2,437,623, and on the 1st of January, 1863, making a period of five years, had increased $1,408,279, making a surplus at that date of $3,864,102, which amount was then held in detail, by the several banks, as follows. We also give in the table below the deposits for January 1862 and January 1863, which show the satisfactory result that these deposits have increased about $18,000,000 in the last year.

	January, 1863.		Jan., 1862.
	Surplus.	Amount due depositors.	Amount due depositors.
Albany Savings Bank	$56,270 64	$1,493,977	$1,199,628
Atlantic Savings Bank, New York	9,121 09	261,036	123,216
Auburn Savings Institution	1,574 40	450,247	175,708
Bank for Savings in the city of New York	672,476 76	9,587,112	8,821,750
Bowery Savings Bank, New York	806,377 95	10,242,494	9,173,033
Broadway Savings Institution, New York	58,773 00	1,129,977	1,010,729
Brooklyn Savings Bank	58,773 62	4,111,595	3,513,250
Buffalo Savings Bank	77,933 61	1,422,711	1,219,784
Central City Savings Institution, Utica	3,502 82	25,970	9,518
Citizens' Savings Bank, New York	4,905 22	251,229	55,166
Corning Savings Bank, Corning	45 51	1,293	436
Dime Savings Bank, Brooklyn	15,587 85	537,154	356,676
Dry Dock Savings Institution, New York	29,397 54	2,662,983	2,110,890
East Brooklyn Savings Bank	203 93	45,222	14,183
East River Savings Institution, New York	61,430 83	1,320,253	1,068,244
Elmira Savings Bank, Elmira	480 34	6,657	4,570
Emigrant Industrial Savings Bank, New York	148,546 00	2,828,011	2,425,170
Erie County Savings Bank, Buffalo	23,074 00	1,698,968	1,027,891
Fishkill Savings Institute	3,698 00	70,724	52,218
Franklin Savings Bank, New York	334 00	14,328	6,140
German Savings Bank, New York	15,058 00	1,483,675	889,042
Greenwich Savings Bank, New York	250,762 00	3,576,105	3,402,410
Hudson City Savings Institution	2,869 00	106,005	89,110
Institution for the savings of merchants' clerks and others, New York	82,987 00	1,886,005	1,896,247
Irving Savings Institution, New York	36,755 00	1,244,091	1,064,209
Jefferson County Savings Bank, Watertown	875 00	69,584	38,160
Kings County Savings Institution, Brooklyn	306 00	104,875	55,698
Manhattan Savings Institution, New York	104,239 00	3,175,907	2,676,907
Manufacturers Savings Bank, Troy	112 00	122,628	122,869
Mariners' Savings Institution, New York	24,121 00	907,681	731,586
Mechanics' and Traders' Sv'gs Institution, N. Y.	47,664 00	590,047	452,032
Monroe County Savings Institution, Rochester	35,186 00	1,037,845	628,778
Newburgh Savings Bank, Newburgh	13,717 00	339,646	250,604
New York Savings Bank, New York	6,599 00	152,488	.....
Niagara County Savings Bank, Lockport	279 00	3,656	2,897
Onondaga County Savings Bank, Syracuse	7,102 00	793,165	438,474
Oswego County Savings Bank, Oswego	798 00	108,148	40,932
Peekskill Savings Bank	2,683 00	61,281	22,480
Poughkeepsie Savings Bank	41,941 00	606,339	446,119
Queens County Savings Bank, Flushing	1,328 00	40,020	28,537
Rhinebeck Savings Bank	744 00	16,108	7,047
Rochester Savings Bank	121,406 00	2,569,645	2,096,800
Rome Savings Bank, Rome	7,026 00	188,510	69,472
Sag Harbor Savings Bank	1,000 00	65,811	40,504
Savings Bank of Utica	34,515 00	714,490	565,436
Schenectady Savings Bank	13,767 00	338,002	315,941

	January, 1863.		Jan., 1862.
	Surplus.	Amount due depositors.	Amount due depositors.
Seamen's Bank for Savings, N. Y.	502,171 00	8,704,277	8,215,686
Sing Sing Savings Bank	1,837 00	55,588	42,259
Sixpenny Savings Bank of the Empire City, New York	2,186 00	198,235	167,451
South Brooklyn Savings Institution	53,161 00	1,106,188	920,775
Southold Savings Bank	1,427 00	111,660	63,484
Syracuse Savings Institution	10,902 00	765,296	552,722
Third Avenue Savings Bank, N. Y.	22,749 00	573,750	363,826
Troy Savings Bank	7,234 00	1,087,826	796,268
Ulster County Savings Institution, Kingston	11,617 00	230,290	178,896
Union Dime Savings Institution, N. Y.	16,253 00	545,541	320,007
Westchester County Savings Bank, Tarrytown	4,216 00	220,323	181,780
Western Savings Bank of Buffalo	1,938 00	252,023	166,852
Williamsburgh Savings Bank, Brooklyn	127,543 00	2,546,828	1,916,041
Yonkers Savings Bank	3,642 00	103,000	78,343
City Savings Institution, Albany	No report.	No report.	206,676
Exchange Savings Bank, Albany	"	"	47,114
Mechanics' and Farmers Savings Bank, Albany	"	"	542,977
Union Savings Bank, Albany	"	"	16,065
Emigrant Savings Bank, Buffalo	"	"	24,203
Cohoes Savings Bank, Cohoes	"	"	66,830
Chenango County Savings Bank	"	"	8,435
Central City Savings Bank, Troy	"	"	89,109
Commercial Savings Bank, Troy	"	"	170,155
Mutual Savings Bank, Troy	"	"	42,572
State Savings Bank, Troy	"	"	85,474
The deposits of above banks not reporting this year, we put down the same in amount as reported last year	.....	1,249,610	.....
Brockport Savings Bank	Closed up.	.....	3,082
Sixpenny Savings Bank, Albany	"	.....	13,615
Rockland County Savings Bank	"	.....	28
Total	$3,846,102 00	81,642,610	64,083,150

Yet, until a bank shall close up we do not see that the Legislature has anything to say about the matter, except to regulate the amount the banks may hold. So long as these saving institutions are in operation, this surplus money remains to make good to depositors any losses consequent upon a depreciation in the par value of their investments. This is, of course, as it should be. At the present time, especially, the condition of our country is such, that the necessity is liable to arise any moment for them to consume their entire surplus, in order to carry themselves safely through the trying ordeal to which all financial institutions in the country must, sooner or later, be subjected, in consequence of the unsettled state of our present currency. Under no circumstances, however, should this fund be allowed to accumulate too rapidly, and all banks should be required to regulate their rate of interest with a view of preventing such a result. The amount of ten per cent, now allowed by law as a surplus, is large enough, and anything over that should be divided among the depositors for the year in which the additional surplus is made. Any other legislation on the subject would be, we think, extremely unfortunate. A small amount of surplus, in a well-regulated savings bank, shows a fair rate of interest to the depositors, and discourages unprofitable investments. On the other hand, a large surplus in the hands of bad men encourages dangerous investments, and jeopardizes the interests of depositors.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

BANK RETURNS THE PAST MONTH.

The decrease in circulation by the banks throughout the country has continued through the past month, as will be seen below. The latest returns of New York country banks are those of March 28th. Had we later returns the same fact would be shown, only more decidedly:

New York city Jan. 3, 1863..	$9,754,355	May 23,	$6,780,678
Boston January 12, 1863.....	8,373,000	May 25,	7,011,700
Philadelphia January 5, 1863.	4,504,115	May 25,	2,808,109
Pennsylvania, except Phil., Feb.	23,283,835	May 25,	21,103,300
New York State Dec. 27, 1862	29,324,450	Mar. 28,	26,946,004
Total.....	$75,239,755		$64,649,491

Thus, since the year came in, there has been a decrease of circulation at the points above mentioned of about $11,000,000. The deposits also seem to have increased the past four weeks, which was unexpected, in view of the large amounts being invested in government securities, while in New York city the specie has increased over $2,000,000.

Below are our usual tables for New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, brought down to the last week in May.

NEW YORK BANKS.

New York Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1862, $69,493,577.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 3,.....	$173,810,009	$35,954,550	$9,754,355	$159,163,246	$186,861,763
" 10,.....	175,816,010	36,770,746	9,551,563	162,878,249	249,796,489
" 17,.....	176,606,558	37,581,465	9,241,670	164,666,003	314,471,457
" 24,.....	179,288,266	38,549,794	9,083,419	168,269,228	298,861,866
February 7,.....	179,892,161	38,243,839	8,780,154	166,342,777	302,352,571
" 14,.....	178,103,592	38,426,460	8,756,217	167,720,880	265,139,104
" 21,.....	178,335,880	37,981,310	8,752,536	170,103,758	291,242,929
" 28,.....	179,958,842	39,512,256	8,739,969	173,912,695	340,574,444
March 7,.....	181,098,322	39,705,089	8,698,175	174,689,212	344,484,442
" 14,.....	177,875,949	36,110,085	8,657,016	172,944,084	307,370,817
" 21,.....	173,829,479	33,955,122	8,609,723	167,004,166	277,881,351
" 28,.....	172,448,526	34,317,691	8,560,602	163,363,846	281,326,258
April 4,.....	173,038,019	34,257,121	8,348,094	160,216,418	287,347,704
" 11,.....	170,845,283	35,406,145	8,178,091	159,894,731	264,468,080
" 18,.....	169,132,822	36,761,696	8,039,558	164,122,146	259,417,565
" 25,.....	171,079,322	37,175,067	7,555,549	167,863,999	258,654,781
May 2,.....	177,364,956	36,846,528	7,201,169	167,696,916	355,557,732
" 9,.....	180,114,983	38,002,633	7,080,565	168,879,130	367,560,731
" 16,.....	180,711,072	38,556,642	6,901,700	168,879,130	353,346,664
" 23,.....	181,319,851	38,544,865	6,780,678	167,655,658	380,304,748

BOSTON BANKS.

Boston Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $————; *Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,..	$77,339,046	$7,672,028	$8,190,496	$33,372,648	.....	.....
" 12,..	77,427,000	7,751,000	8,373,000	33,063,800	17,006,000	13,520,000
" 19,..	76,624,700	7,710,600	8,199,600	33,362,000	16,547,800	13,727,700
" 26,..	76,354,000	7,710,700	8,008,500	33,347,000	16,811,700	13,958,000
Feb. 2,..	76,496,800	7,685,000	8,365,000	34,076,800	16,889,000	14,490,000
" 9,..	78,421,000	7,707,000	8,074,000	35,178,600	16,932,000	14,183,000
" 16,..	78,431,000	7,794,000	8,001,000	34,903,000	17,070,700	14,095,500
" 23,..	78,782,600	7,624,000	8,002,000	34,965,500	17,331,000	14,583,800
Mar. 2,..	79,127,500	7,553,000	8,001,980	35,245,500	17,523,500	15,004,000
" 9,..	79,274,700	7,582,000	8,225,000	35,215,000	17,340,400	14,446,500
" 16,..	79,636,134	7,609,238	7,780,062	32,955,149	17,230,300	13,434,500
" 30,..	77,935,000	7,572,600	7,593,800	31,604,500	17,074,400	11,601,300
April 6,...	76,933,600	7,703,800	7,963,500	32,687,060	15,444,000	12,280,600
" 13,..	74,551,013	7,812,895	7,762,915	32,494,822	14,557,000	12,947,800
" 20,..	73,459,160	7,799,315	7,278,506	33,209,742	14,132,000	12.653,000
" 27,..	73,558,000	7,838,800	7,040,000	32,781,500	13,303,000	11,966,700
May 4,..	73,218,155	7,854,731	7,433,496	31,949,762	13,237,700	11,622,600
" 11,..	73,062,789	7,847,849	7,688,233	31,309,985	13,147,000	11,800,000
" 18,..	73,068,598	7,794,046	7,167,327	32,192,770	12,863,500	11,732,000
" 25,..	72,874,000	7,777,000	7,011,700	33,000,000	12,787,000	11,748,000

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

Philadelphia Banks. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970,130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 5,...	$37,679,675	$4,510,750	$4,504,115	$28,429,189	$6,948,785	$1,994,928
" 12,...	37,533,757	4,544,786	4,450,676	28,018,792	6,890,963	1,848,932
" 19,...	37,416,694	4,549,369	4,382,520	27,877,069	7,050,847	2,275,905
" 26,...	37,479,712	4,572,419	4,284,947	28,773,517	6,755,980	2,638,985
Feb 2,...	37,268,894	4,562,580	4,181,503	29,231,758	6,698,210	2,909,857
" 9,...	37,336,367	4,319,706	4,039,918	28,062,164	6,953,215	2,518,036
" 16,...	37,710,851	4,272,347	3,888,185	28,759,049	7,452,563	2,482,973
" 23,...	37,720,460	4,276,761	3,772,781	29,342,596	7,413,249	2,703,196
Mar. 2,...	37,901,080	4,267,626	3,696,097	30,178,518	7,185,670	2,758,852
" 9,...	38,603,871	4,249,035	3,608,870	30,679,259	7,100,258	2,499,139
" 16,...	39,260,028	4,247,817	3,534,880	30,549,587	7,476,603	1,939,449
" 23,...	39,458,384	4,247,688	3,295,862	30,106,135	7,418,482	1,935,014
" 30,...	38,987,612	4,311,704	3,369,194	29,171,283	6,504,758	2,158,007
Apr. 6,...	37,516,520	4,329,252	3,374,417	29,581,559	5,768,558	2,770,129
" 13,...	36,250,402	4,343,242	3,296,685	30,117,527	5,953,809	3,014,229
" 20,...	36,295,644	4,343,988	3,185,042	31,059,644	5,306,809	3,018,727
" 27,...	36,482,058	4,346,377	3,078,921	31,021,799	5,448,124	2,559,868
May 4,...	36,587,294	4,355,324	2,989,428	30,859,231	5,328,898	2,891,087
" 11,...	36,593,179	4,359 365	2,901,600	30,949,781	4,975,939	2,542,792
" 18,...	36,887,301	4,357,119	2,866,121	31,892,308	4,640,623	2,536,279
" 25,...	37,116,093	4,357,169	2,808,109	32,455,953	4,623,392	2,480,714

PENNSYLVANIA BANKS.

The following statement of the condition of the banks of Pennsylvania out of Philadelphia, we have prepared from the official tab'es :

	Nov. 18, 1862.	Feb. 18, 1863.	May 18, 1863.
Capital	$14,101,030	$14,138,363	$14,401,549
Circulation	22,580,568	23 283,835	21,103,300
Deposits	11,495,158	13,377,971	16,840,252
Due other banks	572,714	713,147	1,104,499
Due from other banks	9,465,175	9,229,718	8,248,749
Loans and discounts	23,646,618	23,059,062	25,288,187
Specie	4,025,788	3,679,039	4,083,776

BANK OF ENGLAND.

On the 22d of April the Bank of England reduced its rate of discount from 4 to 3½ per cent, and on the 29th April again reduced it to 3 per cent. The Bank of France has also during the month reduced its bank rate to 3½ per cent. The following comparative table will be found of interest, affording, as it does, a view of the bank returns, the bank rate of discount, and the price of wheat in London during a period of three years, corresponding with the date of our last returns, May 13:

At corresponding dates with the week ending May 13, 1863.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Circulation, including bank post bills	£20,703,809	£21,618,780	£21,252,916
Public deposits	6,725,187	6,304,683	6,735,187
Other deposits	11,591,539	14,984,808	13,727,556
Government securities	10,180,988	10,331,868	11,151,395
Other securities	19,796,757	18,647,729	18,952,725
Reserve of notes and coin	6,814,656	10,681,392	8,665,531
Coin and bullion	12,382,446	16,919,147	14,653,141
Bank rate of discount	6 per cent.	2½ p. cent.	3 per cent
Average price of wheat	55s. 0d.	58s. 8d.	46s. 2d

Subjoined is our usual table with the returns brought down to May 13th, 1863:

WEEKLY STATEMENT.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 17...	£19,932,860	£8,507,144	£14,033,994	£30,539,363	£15,031,658	3 pr. ct.
" 24...	20,150,398	8,654,499	14,806,497	31,346,731	14,870,795	3 "
" 31...	20,516,435	8,338,717	15,469,254	32,488,020	14,956,421	3 "
Jan. 7...	20,927,993	8,782,808	14,393,308	32,620,233	14,685,555	3 "
" 14...	21,018,849	4,280,730	16,772,782	31,165,075	14,102,169	4 "
" 21...	20 693,991	4,965,798	14,993,225	30,227,056	13,855,849	4 "
" 28...	20,771,286	5,416,868	14,414,763	30,238,865	13,611,823	5 "
Feb. 4...	20,709,154	6,351,617	13 352,287	29,997,233	13,692,136	5 "
" 11...	20,444,454	6,952,808	13,596,356	30,288,406	14,070,651	5 "
" 18...	19,916,496	7,413.275	13,769,276	29,890,503	14,589,222	4 "
" 25...	19,715,828	7,901,658	13,367,153	29,709,079	14,614,096	4 "
Mar. 4...	20,322,055	8,036,003	13,368,086	30,880,805	14,504 517	4 "
" 11...	19,801,665	8,673,899	13,282,605	31,096,327	14,328,178	4 "
" 17...	20,012,331	9,348,499	13,003,088	31,482,170	14,547,812	4 "
" 24...	20,186,276	10,364,471	12,742,282	31,896,338	15,025,274	4 "
Apr. 1...	20,965,228	10,107,041	13,172,090	32,775,752	15,141,755	4 "
" 8...	21,279,339	6,714,109	14,829,832	30,946,784	14,963,835	4 "
" 15...	21,326,820	5,769,274	15,013,891	29,974,677	15,229,237	4 "
" 22...	21,413,226	6,316,413	14,739,897	30,182,533	15,337,151	3½ "
" 29...	21,452,800	7,178,312	13,606,989	29,994,349	15,348,492	3 "
May 6...	21,376,999	7,241,739	13,122,087	29,718,602	15,141,760	3 "
" 13...	21,252,916	6,735,187	13,727,556	30,201,120	14,653,141	3 "

RETURNS OF THE NEW YORK STATE BANKS.

The following table shows the aggregate resources and liabilities of the banks of the State of New York for the last two quarters. The returns for June and September, 1862, will be found in vol. 47, page 544 of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

RESOURCES.

		March 28, 1863.	Dec. 27, 1862.
Loans and discounts		$183,864,089	$178,922,536
Overdrafts	$3,261 and	519,430	508,521
Due from banks		26,764,858	27,682,461
Due from directors	$6,898,741	.....	.....
Due from brokers	10,231,464	.....	.....
Real estate	11,500 and	9,200,498	9,603,672
Specie		36,802,438	37,803,047
Cash items		50,181,845	33,103,776
Stocks, promissory and United States 7 3-10 notes and indebtedness certificates		104,704,400	118,860,720
Bonds and mortgages		6,106,461	
Bills of solvent banks and U. S. demand notes		25,773,361	17,041,535
Bills of suspended banks	$45 and	429	
Loss and expense account		975,350	1,585,814
Total		$444,894,124	$425,112,082

LIABILITIES.

Capital	$108,148,202	$108,668,297
Circulation	35,506,606	39,182,819
Profits	15,732,206	17,102,000
Due banks	52,601,332	57,389,106
Due individuals and corporations other than banks and depositors	2,171,144	1,661,401
Due Treasurer of the State of New York	5,855,990	7,625,478
Due depositors on demand	221,544,347	191,537,897
Amount due not included under either the above heads	2,313,789	1,945,084
Total	$444,894,124	$425,115,082

There were in March three hundred and eight banks in operation, all of which reported, except J. N. Westfall & Co.'s bank, Jordan, which had not commenced business on the morning of March 28.

FORM FOR THE USE OF PERSONS DESIRING TO ASSOCIATE FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL BANKING ASSOCIATION.

The following form has been prepared at the United States Treasury Department for the use of those persons who propose to associate in the establishment of National Banking Banking Associations:

186—.

We, whose names are specified in article fourth of this Certificate, have associated ourselves for the purpose of transacting the business of bank-

ing under the act entitled "An act to provide a National Currency, secured by a pledge of United States stocks, and to provide for the circulation and redemption thereof," approved February 25, 1863.

First. The name and title of this Association shall be the ——(1)—— National Banking Association of ——

Second. The said Association shall be located in the —— of ——, county of ——, and State of ——, where its operations of discount and deposit are to be carried on.

Third. The capital stock of said Association shall be ——— dollars, ($——), and the same shall be divided into ——— shares of one hundred dollars each.

Fourth. The name and residence of each of the shareholders of this Association, with the number of shares held by each, is as follows:

NAME.	RESIDENCE.	NO. OF SHARES.

Fifth. Said Association shall commence on the ——— day of ———, 186—.

Sixth. This certificate is made in order that we may avail ourselves of the advantages of the aforesaid act.

Witness our hands and seals this —— day of ———, 186—.

State of ————, county of ————, ss. On this the —— day of ——, 186—, personally came before me ——— ———, to me well known, who severally acknowledge that they executed the within instrument for the purposes therein mentioned.

Witness my hand and seal of office, the day and year aforesaid.

(1.) The blanks will be filled so as to show the numerical order of the organization and the locality; for example, "The *first* National Banking Association *of Providence Rhode Island.*

RETURNS OF THE CANADA BANKS.

We give below the Auditor's statement of the banks of Canada for January and May, 1863:

	January.	May.
Capital authorized	$35,266,666	$35,266,666
Capital paid up	26,455,298	26,739,878
LIABILITIES.		
Notes in circulation	$9,940,423	$9,024,240
Balance due to other banks	1,249,308	1,836,314
Deposits not bearing interest	9,580,143	10,119,578
Deposits bearing interest	9,662,483	9,940,333
Total liabilities	$30,382,357	$30,920,465
ASSETS.		
Coin and bullion	$5,615,519	$5,394,927
Landed or other property	1,974,786	2,017,810
Government securities	5,027,739	4,990,334
Notes or bills of other banks	1,132,788	1,087,414
Balances due from other banks	2,143,238	1,050,523
Notes and bills discounted	42,458,413	44,605,111
Other debts not before included	2,629,681	2,758,772
Total	$60,982,218	$61,904,891

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE HAMBURG EXHIBITION.

TO THE FARMERS, AGRICULTURISTS, AND MANUFACTURERS OF AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS AND MACHINERY, AND OTHERS INTERESTED IN THE GREAT NATIONAL EXHIBITION AT HAMBURG.

HAVING been appointed by the President of the United States, to represent the American Union at the International Exhibition at Hamburg, which is to be held under the auspices of the German Agricultural Society in July next, I deem it my duty to suggest for your consideration some of the principal reasons for which, at this important period of our history, we should give substantial evidence of the sympathy felt by us in this laudable effort of our German friends to advance the important interests of agricultural industry, which lie at the foundation of national prosperity.

The appropriation in aid of this effort, which was brought before Congress by the special request of the President, was only lost by a trifling majority, occasioned by the press of other matters at the close of the session, and want of time for due consideration; but I am happy to state that the prompt liberality which distinguishes the American character, has supplied the place of this appropriation.

The State of New York, in view of the important interests which she has in connection with the German States, has appropriated $1,000 to encourage her citizens in sending contributions to this exhibition. Other States would doubtless have done the same, had the subject been properly brought before their legislative assemblies.

With this amount, together with the aid of the very liberal subscriptions made by some of the prominent citizens of New York and Philadelphia, for the furtherance of this project, we hope to secure such a contribution of the results of American industry and ingenuity as will correspond with our national dignity, and fully prove to the people of Central Europe that we are still in a condition to render effective aid to any enterprise having for its object the elevation and happiness of the human race.

I do not hesitate to ask in behalf of our pride of country, that each of the States of the Union will furnish a representative to this great gathering of European nationalties, and that liberal samples of all the agricultural products of the several States may be collected and prepared for exhibition, with a view to an extensive exchange of seeds and plants, which would doubtless result in material advantage to the agricultural interests of our country.

Although the difficulties of transportation may be an obstacle in the way of sending any considerable show of stock, yet we shall have from Vermont some fine specimens of Spanish merinos, said to be an improvement on the original breed. Our country affords some of the finest working cattle in the world, and it is to be hoped we shall send a specimen of

these and other kinds of stock and poultry, as proof of what we possess in this particular.

I would especially urge our inventors and manufacturers of all kinds of agricultural implements and machinery, (for which we stand pre-eminent before the world,) and have already obtained a valuable market in several of the countries of Europe, to exhibit the means employed by us to fill our vast storehouses with an annual supply of food, enabling us to furnish the wants of millions besides our own people.

I have been made fully aware that the great demand for agricultural machinery to supply the wants of manual labor in agricultural pursuits, renders it inconvenient for our manufacturers to give their attention to this object, yet patriotism, as well as sound policy for the future, demands of you a proper response to this invitation to unite with your contributions to give a general interest to this exhibition.

But there are other and more weighty considerations than the mere exhibition of agricultural specimens, or the inventions of our people in machinery and implements of husbandry at this time, when our position is exciting the attention of the civilized world.

We are to be represented by our contributions, as well as by our delegates, as a distinct nationality, surrounded by the people of Northern and Central Europe, to many of whom the knowledge of our condition is but conjecture, and it is therefore for our interest that we should give evidence of the continuance of our national life, as well as our public spirit; and mainly upon this ground, have the very liberal contributions been made by some of our patriotic fellow-citizens, and the highest officers of our government have been deeply interested in the part we are taking in this exhibition.

The great German Empire, with which we formed an early treaty of friendship and commerce, and with which we have maintained unbroken relations of peace from the days of WASHINGTON, is known to contemplate our grievous internal troubles with intense solicitude, and the presence of American delegates, and American inventions and products, at this Grand International Exhibition at Hamburg, will not only promote the material interests of both countries, but will undoubtedly be hailed as a proper recognition of the practical patriotism of our German adopted citizens, and a response to the ardent sympathy in our country's cause, cherished among their friends in the Fatherland.

But just *one month* now remains for us to prepare and send forward our contributions; the time, however, is ample if immediate action is taken on the subject. The agricultural societies or the Executive authority of each of the States, in which delegates have not been appointed, are earnestly requested to make selection of suitable representatives to the Exhibition. This is highly important to the interests of the several States, in view of the extensive information to be obtained in all matters pertaining to agriculture, in the exchange of seeds and plants, and in the printed records of the several State societies, and also in reference to the encouragement of German emigration.

Provision for space and accommodation at the exhibition will be made at once for all American contributions without charge to contributors, and articles for exhibition will be received until the 11th day of June next, though shipments, which can be made as early as the 28th of May, should be sent at that time.

The committee at Hamburg have decided to receive articles used for ordinary domestic purposes, such as churns, washing-machines, pails, brooms, etc., of which we anticipate a large variety.

Our carriages and wagons will command special attention, as the American style of vehicles are held in high estimation.

Samples of provisions, lard, flour, mazena, etc., will be duly appreciated by the committee.

An especial interest is felt in Germany in regard to the part we shall take in this exhibition, and we are assured that the invitation to the different countries in Europe to unite in this project, has met with a warm response. The English manufacturers of agricultural implements and machinery have made arrangements for a large display. The French Minister of the Interior has issued a circular calling upon the citizens of the Empire to give it countenance and support. The Swedish government has voted money in its aid. Orders have been received from Russia for the purchase of American implements and machinery at the Fair —and probably every European nation will have its representatives there. The unfortunate effect, therefore, of a meagre show on our part may be easily conceived, and we shall do ourselves great injustice if we neglect this favorable opportunity of giving ample evidence of the spirit and resources of the "Great Republic."

Messrs. AUSTIN, BALDWIN & Co., of the city of New York, are the duly authorized agents of the Hamburg Committee, to whom all consignments for the exhibition must be made, and who will pay all the expenses of transportation from any part of the United States to the city of Hamburg, to the extent of the funds contributed, which are presumed to be sufficient for the purpose.

Messrs. JAMES R. MCDONALD & Co., of Hamburg, have been appointed to receive and take special charge of all articles sent from the United States to the exhibition, and in absence of the owner, will see that they are properly exhibited, and sold if are desired, in which case prompt remittances will be made through the agency in New York.

The extensive grounds in the vicinity of Hamburg, covering eighty acres, have been laid out for the exhibition, plans of which, together with any further information, may be had on application to Messrs. AUSTIN, BALDWIN & Co.

First-class steamers will sail from New York direct for Hamburg on the 30th of May, and 13th and 27th of June. It is my purpose to sail on the first date named. I would recommend that delegates should leave as early as the 13th of June, though the following steamer will probably arrive in time for the opening of the exhibition, which is on the 14th of July. The passage to delegates will be reduced 25 per cent from the regular rates.

Letters and communications addressed to me should be sent to the care of Messrs AUSTIN, BALDWIN & Co., No. 72 Broadway.

JOSEPH A. WRIGHT, *U. S. Commissioner.*

NEW YORK, *May* 14, 1863.

DECISIONS OF TREASURY DEPARTMENT UNDER THE TARIFF ACT OF JULY 14, 1862.

The following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury, of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors, relating to the proper classification, under the tariff act of July 14, 1862, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production entered at the ports of Boston and New York:

DUNNAGE MATS.

Treasury Department, March 31, 1863.

SIR: The appeal of ROBERT B. STORER from your decision assessing duty on the charge of dunnage mats contained in invoices of certain sheet iron imported by him, has been considered.

The appellant alleges: "These mats being the ordinary article of dunnage used in vessels from Russia, were bought and used solely for that purpose—for the protection of the article which they accompanied, and therefore properly no more subject to duty than old boards and wood used to ceil the vessel or to raise the cargo from the vessel's floor" and "That no more mats were used than were absolutely needed."

The admission, on the part of the appellant, that the mats in question were a *charge* in the invoices, should, of itself, clearly establish the correctness of your decision.

It is, however, the law and the practice that no article of *merchantable value* shall be landed from the vessel in which they have been imported without the payment of or security for the payment of impost, if warehoused, unless they are made free of duty by the existing tariffs. In the case cited of "Old boards and wood used to ceil the vessel or to raise the cargo from the vessel's floor," duty would be assessed thereon, if of any merchantable value, when landed.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, Boston, Mass.*

WASTE FUR.

Treasury Department, April 24, 1863.

SIR: Messrs. W. A. & A. M. WHITE appeal from your decision assessing a duty of 20 per cent on certain hatters' furs, imported by them per ships "Dreadnought" and "B. Adams," from Liverpool, and claim to enter them at 10 per cent, under section 19 of the act of March 2, 1861, as "furs not on the skin from undressed skins."

It is alleged by the appellants, and admitted by the experts of the customs, that the article in question "is cut from same skins, at same time, and by same process as other fur which is allowed to come in under the old duty of 10 per cent."

This does not, however, make it a fur, but, on the contrary, clearly establishes its character as "*waste*," as its production is an unavoidable incident to a process for obtaining the *fur* from skins.

In General Regulations, June 1, 1856, there is a decision classifying "waste silk, waste linen, or the waste or clipping of any other cloth, with

waste or shoddy;" and this is reaffirmed in General Regulations, February 1, 1857, page 590, with the addition of "or hatters' skins."

The principle of these decisions this Department sees no reason to change.

Under section 19 of the act of March 2, 1861, flocks, waste or shoddy, was subject to a duty of 10 per cent; and under section 6 of the act of July 14, 1862, an additional duty of 10 per cent is imposed.

The article in question was classified as "waste fur" by you, and as such subjected to a duty at the rate of 20 per cent.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

To HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, New York.*

COUNTRIES BEYOND THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Treasury Department, April 24, 1863.

SIR: The following question has been presented to this Department:

What is the proper interpretation or meaning of the words, "goods, wares, and merchandise of the growth or produce of *countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope* when imported from places this side of the Cape of Good Hope," as used in section 14 of tariff act of July 14, 1862?

I am of the opinion that by "countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope" is meant all countries with which we carry on commercial intercourse by means of vessels passing by or around the Cape of Good Hope, in a westwardly direction when sailing to this country, and which, in the ordinary course of navigation, are reached from here and from England by vessels passing by or around the Cape of Good Hope eastwardly.

In connection with this subject, I consider it necessary to say that all goods, wares, and merchandise of the growth or produce of countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, when imported from places this side of the Cape of Good Hope, are subject to the additional duty of 10 per cent, unless their character, quality, and condition be entirely changed by manufacture or otherwise. For example, Manilla hemp, if manufactured into cordage in England, would not on the importation of said cordage into this country be subject to the additional duty of 10 per cent; in such a case its distinctiveness as hemp would be merged in its new condition.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, *Collector, &c., N. Y.*

GINGER ROOT, (FRESH OR GREEN).

Treasury Department, May 6, 1863.

SIR: Messrs. LUN, WO & Co. have appealed from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 5 cents per pound on certain "ginger root" imported by them from Hong Kong.

The appellants submit, "that, in their opinion, the ginger root contemplated in the tariff is the dried ginger root known in the trade and to druggists; whereas the ginger root which comes from China is fresh—the juice running out if cut—sprouting on the voyage, often one-half of the quantity shipped arriving in a rotten state, &c."

Messrs. LUN, WO & Co. claim to enter the article in question as an unenumerated vegetable, liable to 10 per cent ad valorem duty.

Section 5 of the Tariff act of July 14, 1862, imposes a duty of 5 cents per pound on "ginger root;" and in the absence of any provision for "green" or "fresh" ginger root, this rate must prevail.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

To IRA P. RANKIN, Esq., *Collector, San Francisco.*

GOODS ORDERED, ETC., PREVIOUS TO THE ACT OF JULY 14, 1862, TAKING EFFECT.

Treasury Department, April 22, 1863.

SIR: The appeal of GEO. ROGGE from your decision assessing duty, in accordance with the tariff act of July 14, 1862, on three bales of woolens imported by him per "Aristides" from Antwerp, is before me.

The appellant says: "1st. The goods in question were contracted for in Europe, and on shipboard, and bill of lading signed, previous to any intention having been made known by Congress to amend or alter the tariff acts of March 2, 1861, August 5, 1861, and December 24, 1861; and such being the case, claim to enter them under the provisions of the last-named acts of 1861.

"2d. That the clause in the act taking effect on the 1st of August, 1862, imposing the new duty 'on goods on shipboard,' is not equitable or just, as it places the merchant at the mercy of any sudden changes made in the tariff, and thereby causes him to sustain heavy pecuniary losses."

It will be perceived that the appellant does not allege that the duty was erroneously or illegally exacted, but simply complains of the want of equity and oppressiveness of the act of Congress of July 14, 1862.

As this Department has no authority to question the policy of any act of Congress, I dismiss the appeal and hereby affirm your decision.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., N. Y.*

COTTON—NEW ORLEANS AND SURAT.

Treasury Department, April 23, 1863.

SIR: I have considered your report on the appeal of HENRY S. SHAW from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of one-half cent per pound, on 200 bales of New Orleans cotton, and one-half cent per pound and 10 per cent ad valorem on 195 bales Surat cotton, imported by him from Liverpool.

The appellant alleges that the "200 bales are exempt from duty, being the production of the United States returned to this country," and claims the "whole as entitled to free entry, it having been ordered sometime before the passage of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, and bought and shipped on board the vessels before the 1st of August, 1862."

It appears that the appellant has failed to produce the evidence required by law to entitle the 200 bales to free entry. The duty of one-half cent per pound and 10 per cent ad valorem assessed on the 195 bales Surat

cotton was strictly in accordance with the tariff act of July 14, 1862, section 8 of which imposes the one-half cent per pound, and section 14 authorizes the additional 10 per cent ad valorem "on all goods, wares, and merchandise of the growth or produce of countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, when imported from places this side of the Cape of Good Hope."

The claim that both parcels are entitled to free entry because the order was given and the cotton on board the vessels before the passage of the act of July 14, 1862, is groundless.

The 21st section of this act provides that "all goods on shipboard on the 1st day of August, 1862, shall be subject to the duties prescribed by this act." There is no exemption of goods ordered, purchased, or shipped prior to its passage.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, &c., Boston, Mass.*

RAGS.

Treasury Department, April 25, 1863.

SIR: I have considered the appeals dated February 5 and March 17, 1863, of WM. B. WOOD, from your decisions assessing duty, at the rate of 10 per cent ad valorem, under section 14 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, as "East India Rags," on certain rags imported by him per "Neptune" and "Columbia."

In the appeal of February 5, the appellant says: "Had we entered them as rags, without any such description as 'Calcutta,' they would have been passed free, as the balance were."

In the appeal of March 17, the appellant says: "We have now an invoice of paper stock marked 'Surat gunny,' and the same duty of 10 per cent is demanded by the collector of this port;" furthermore, that "'Calcutta' are light thin rags, and so called because they describe such rags as would be collected from worn-out garments of hot climates. But whether the rags were actually collected in the East Indies, or were selected from among those collected in Europe, we believe it impossible to decide."

The experts of the customs say the rags in question "appear to us to be Calcutta or East India produce, and were baled in material and manner similar to goods imported from these places. We therefore reported them as 'from beyond the Cape,' under 14th section act of July 14, 1862; and this we should have done if the bales had not been *stamped* nor *invoiced* as 'Calcutta or Surat.'"

The appellant having failed to show that the rags were the produce of a country this side of the Cape of Good Hope, and the reasons of the experts for classifying them as the produce of a country beyond the Cape of Good Hope being substantial and according to usage, the terms of the law leave no discretion.

Your decision is affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON. *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., N. Y.*

"HALF GOLD," (GOLD LEAF.)

Treasury Department, April 2, 1863.

SIR: Messrs. L. BRANDIES & Co. appeal from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of one dollar and fifty cents per pack, on fifty-five packs of "half gold" imported by them, alleging that "fifty packs of this 'half gold,' (which is only a technical name for it,) are composed of a body of silver slightly plated or coated on one side with an alloy of gold, and five packs are composed of silver, and plated with Dutch metal.

"We claim, consequently, the article being almost entirely silver leaf, to pay the duty at the rate of 75 cents per pack."

The article called "half gold" is not specially provided for by name in any of the existing tariffs. It is a combination of gold and silver leaf, and is used for similar purposes and as a substitute for gold leaf, and therefore is liable to duty, under the 20th section of the act of August 30, 1842, to the same duty as gold leaf, that being the enumerated article it most nearly resembles in "material, quality, texture, or the uses to which it may be applied."

Your decision is therefore affirmed.

Very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

To HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, New York.*

SLIPPER PATTERNS.

Treasury Department, April 11, 1863.

SIR: Certain "slipper patterns," imported by Messrs. SCHACK & HOTOP were classified by you as manufactures of worsted and cotton, and duty assessed at the rate of 35 per cent; from this classification and assessment the importers appeal, claiming that 10 per cent ad valorem is the proper rate of duty under the clause in section 6 of the tariff act of July 14, 1862, commencing: "Lastings, mohair cloth, silk, twist, or other manufacture of cloth, woven or made in patterns of such size, shape, and form, or cut in such manner as to be fit for shoes, slippers, boots, bootees, gaiters, and buttons, exclusively," &c., &c.

A majority of the experts of the customs, to whom a sample of the goods in question has been submitted, are of opinion that the article is of size and shape, and of a texture and color precisely adapted for slippers, and can be used for no other purpose advantageously, and should be admitted at 10 per cent, as claimed by the importers, and in this opinion I concur.

You will govern yourself accordingly.

Respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, New York.*

COTTON SHIRTS.

Treasury Department, May 4, 1863.

SIR: Messrs. JORDAN, MARSH & Co., of Boston, appeal from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 35 per cent, on certain "cotton shirts," imported by them into Portland per steamer Jura, and claim to enter them at 30 per cent, alleging that the law expressly provides that shirts and drawers pay that rate of duty.

The act of March 2, 1861, imposes a duty of 25 per cent, and section 10 of the Tariff act of July 14, 1862, imposes an additional duty of 5 per cent "on shirts or drawers *wove or made on frames*, composed wholly of cotton, etc."

The act of March 2, 1861, imposes a duty of 30 per cent, and section 13 of the Tariff act of July 14, 1862, imposes an additional duty of 5 per cent "on wearing apparel of whatever description, of whatever material ocmposed, except wool, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer."

The question which presents itself is, to which of these two classes the shirts imported by Messrs. JORDAN, MARSH & Co., properly belong.

The shirts are known to the trade as "patent finish shirts," and are composed wholly of cotton, and are manufactured by the tailor or seamstress from cloth in the piece—with the exception of the sleeves, which are woven without seams—then shaped to fit the arm holes, and afterwards attached, by sewing, to the body of the shirt.

It is quite clear they are not shirts "*wove or made on frames*," and, in my opinion, were properly classified by you under section 13 of the Tariff act of July 14, 1862, and subjected to duty at the rate of 35 per cent ad valorem.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

To JED. JEWETT, Esq., *Collector, Portland, Me.*

MOHAIR COATING OR CLOAKING.

Treasury Department, May 6, 1863.

SIR: I have had under consideration the appeal of Messrs. WHITE, BROWN, DAVIS & Co. from your decision assessing duty on certain "mohair and worsted piece goods," at the rate of 18 cents per pound and 30 per cent ad valorem, under section 13 of act of March, 1861, and section 9 of act of July 14, 1862, as "manufactures of wool of every description, made wholly or in part of wool, not otherwise provided for."

The appellants allege that "these goods are not made wholly or in part of wool, but of worsted or mohair—worsted or mohair being the component material subject to a duty of 35 per cent ad valorem."

Samples of the goods in question have been submitted to the experts of the customs, a majority of whom are unable to discover the presence of wool, but are of the opinion that "wool waste" may be, to a very limited extent, a component material. "Wool waste," however, is not recognized by the tariff act as "wool."

In my opinion, the claim of the appellants is well established, and your decision is hereby overruled.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, *Acting Sec. of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., N. Y.*

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

IMPORTANT TO IMPORTERS—HALF MONTH'S STORAGE.

UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, MAY 21.

RICHARD IRWIN *et al. vs.* AUGUSTUS SCHELL. Before Judge NELSON. This suit involves the question of the right of the collector to collect the half month's storage, according to the regulations of the Treasury, under the following circumstances:

The plaintiffs in the case of several shipments of goods in June and July, 1857, from Liverpool to this port, caused warehouse entries to be made at the custom-house, under the act of Congress of 28th March, 1854; but before the goods were removed to the warehouse, they changed their minds and applied to the collector for permits to land the goods for removal to their own stores, or for consumption—whereupon the collector charged them half a month's storage, besides the duties, which storage for the goods in the five vessels, amounted to the sum of $98 26, and which was paid under protest.

It is admitted that no act of Congress can be found for making this charge against the merchant under the above state of facts. The charge is wholly an arbitrary one, prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and a fixed sum might as well have been imposed as the half month's storage. The imposition is sought to be sustained in the idea that in case the goods are entered for warehousing, and before they are landed and removed the merchant applies for a permit to land for consumption, the vessel, in the meantime, may be regarded as the warehouse, with the permission of the Treasury. But this is hardly plausible, as it involves the absurdity of charging the merchant for the use of his own vessel.

Besides, the government has no interest in the warehousing business, as according to the act of 1854 the goods are stored at the risk and expense of the importer.

The truth is, that the charge is made simply for the favor granted to the merchant in permitting him to land the goods for consumption after he has entered them for warehousing. After being thus entered, the collector might doubtless compel him to procure his goods in the usual way, through the warehouse, which would increase considerably the expense. Hence, if the merchant changes his mind and applies for a permit to land for consumption, this charge is imposed. The change, as appears from the case, adds nothing to the labor or trouble of the officers of the customs, as is, indeed, obvious from the usual course of the business.

As I have said already, there is no law for this charge against the merchant; and any other arbitrary sum might as well be imposed. And I have hesitated whether I ought not to put an end to it. I certainly should, were it not for considerations which I will now state.

It does not appear in the case whether the charge goes to the government, or is a perquisite to the collector. But as it is imposed by a regulation of the Treasury, it is fair to presume, that it goes to the government. This is a suit against the collector, and the question, under the

circumstances, arises, whether the payment of this storage was an involuntary payment. If it was not, then the action will not lie. It is true the plaintiffs paid under protest. But their own acts led to the charge. They entered their goods for warehousing and afterwards changed their minds and asked for permit to land. The collector, under instructions of the Treasury, probably, might have refused this and compelled the warehousing of them.

The Secretary of the Treasury, however, says, if you will pay a half month's storage, I will give you a permit. This is a favor extended for compensation. I do not agree that public officers can make these bargains, but if the merchant voluntarily accedes to them I am inclined to think he cannot turn round and sue the collector as for an involuntary payment. The merchant was not compelled to accede, as he might have procured his goods through the warehouse.

There is no difficulty where the merchant makes up his mind on the arrival of the goods what he will do with them—warehouse them, or land them for consumption. He is not compelled to enter them for warehousing. The goods may remain on board his ship till entered, and permits of landing obtained.

Upon the whole, after some difficulty, I have come to the conclusion, for the reasons above stated, that the plaintiffs cannot recover.

Judgment for defendant.

PETROLEUM IN GERMANY.

Large quantities of petroleum are now constantly forwarded to the interior of Germany by the railroads; but as there is some danger connected with its conveyance, the Association of North-German Railway Companies have issued special regulations for the transport of petroleum, binding on them all. The principal conditions insisted on are the following: The traffic to be exclusively confined to refined petroleum, crude being totally excluded. The casks to be immediately examined when brought to the station, and not to be received unless in irreproachably good condition. Refined petroleum not permitted to be loaded, unloaded, or stored in the goods sheds, but only at place at a safe distance and in the open air, fixed on at each station by the respective station masters. The petroleum not to be conveyed in the covered vans with other goods, but placed in separate open trucks, simply covered by a tarpaulin. The loading and unloading to be performed exclusively by daylight, and no smoking permitted by the men employed, under any circumstances, in the neighborhood of the casks. No lamps or lanthorns to be attached to the petroleum trucks at night when in motion. On each side of the truck a red board to be displayed, on which to be painted in conspicuous letters the words "Petroleum, dangerous." Petroleum only to be forwarded by goods trains. The trucks to be placed in the middle of the train, as at night lamps are attached to the last carriage so as to be visible from behind. The minimum quantity is fixed at 50 centners. If less, full freight for the above quantity to be charged.

RAILWAY, CANAL, AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

PENNSYLVANIA RAILROADS.

From the reports of the several railroad companies for 1862, as communicated to the Auditor General of the State, and reported to Legisla ture, we extract the following information:

PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD.

Capital authorized, $20,000,000; paid in, $13,274,600. Funded debt, $9,527,400; total funded and floating debt, $9,570,400 at six per cent.

Cost of road, $21,806,852 76; length, $365\frac{85}{100}$ miles; double track 318 miles; two branch roads. Has six engine houses, etc.; 253 engines; 113 passenger; 44 baggage and express; 3,471 freight, and 400 coal cars. Has 81 iron, 57 wood, and 17 stone bridges, 102 passenger, and 106 wood and water stations.

During the year 1,089,659 passengers were carried, and 1,989,126 tons freight. Express trains run 27 and mail trains 24 miles per hour.

Expenses: Maintenance of real estate and road, $768.731 68; repairs of machinery, $1,144,566 87; operating road, $1,920,046 65; total, $3,833,345 20. Receipts, $10,143,738 78.

Accidents: Six passengers, 22 employes, and 39 others killed—67; 11 passengers, 38 employes, and 27 others injured—76.

PITTSBURG, FORT WAYNE, AND CHICAGO.

Capital authorized, $6,500,000; subscribed, $5,351,062 90; paid in, $5,351,062 90. Funded debt, $12,935,173, at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; no floating debt.

Cost of road, $17,448,687 16; length, $468\frac{3}{100}$ miles; double track, $50\frac{66}{100}$. Has 13 engine houses, and 109 engines. Has 53 passenger, 23 express and baggage, and 1,174 freight cars. Has 3 iron, 183 wood, and 39 stone bridges; 73 passenger, and 45 wood and water stations.

During the year 626,892 passengers were carried, and 592,770 tons freight. Express trains run 26, and mail trains 23 miles per hour.

Expenses: Maintenance of real estate and way, $470,958 64; repairs of machinery, $335,872 09; operating road, $999,987 83; total, $1,806,818 56. Receipts, $3,613,841 36.

Accidents: Eight employes and 12 others killed—20; 9 employes and 2 others injured—11.

PITTSBURG AND CONNELLSVILLE.

Capital authorized, $5,000,000; subscribed, $2,143,000; paid in, $1,763,130 47. Funded debt, $1,500,000; at 6 per cent; total funded and floating, $1,610,417 19.

Cost of road, $2,154,348 76; length 149 miles; double track, $6\frac{4}{100}$ miles. Has 3 engine-houses; 10 locomotives; 9 passenger, 3 express and baggage, 31 freight, and 19 coal cars. Has 1 iron, 9 wood, and 2

stone bridges; 12 passenger, and 8 wood and water stations. Owns $190,544 45 of real estate.

Number of passengers carried, 143,510, and 85,764 tons freight. Express trains run 20, and mail trains 16 miles per hour.

Expenses: Maintenance of real estate and way, $21,073 30; repairs of machinery, $28,732 35; operating road, $29,733 14, total, $79,538 79. Receipts, $129,917 84.

Accidents: Two employes and 1 other killed—3; 7 employes and 1 other injured—8.

RAILWAYS OF CONNECTICUT.

The annual report of the Railway Commissioners of the State of Connecticut reviews the railroad history of the Commonwealth for ten years past. They say that no State in New England has an equal number of miles of iron track to its square miles of territory, and few States have the same proportional capital invested. During the time mentioned no great through lines or independent roads have been projected or built. Some one or two extensions of established roads have been added, in order to form more perfect connections with existing routes, and one or two existing roads have been completed. The statistics of the roads are—

The chartered capital of the several railroads in whole or in part	$22,665,490
Of which there has been paid in	18,929,879
Total apparent expense chargeable to construction account	27,641,840
The total length of road constructed under charters granted in whole or in part by the State is.....miles	780.05
Of which is constructed in this State	600.00
The aggregate length of double track is	125.05
Making the entire length of double track in use	908.00
Average number of miles to a locomotive in this State	4½
The total expenditure for working the roads has been, exclusive of interest	$2,033,924
For fuel, oil, and waste	353,320
For salaries, wages, etc., chargeable to passenger, freight, and miscellaneous expenses	512,277
There has been expended during the year:—	
For maintenance of way	$460,230
For maintenance of motive power and cars	249,961
Making for repairs and renewals a total cost of	710,191
The total income of the railroads in this State during the past year has been	3,673,291
Their net earnings have been	1,146,561
Their reported undivided surplus is	90,832
Passenger and other trains have run in all.....miles	2,449,706
Carrying.....passengers	2,968,076

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE DEAD OF POMPEII EXHUMED—THE RECENT REMARKABLE DISCOVERIES IN THE BURIED CITY.

From time to time brief accounts have been published of the discovery of human remains, in a state of good preservation, in a house in Pompeii. Interesting particulars of the recent researches in the buried city are given by a correspondent of the London *Athenæum*, who says that the human bodies were found in an excavation near the house called that of Abbondanza. Falling in a mass of pumice stone, these unfortunate persons had not become attached to the soil, and it was easy to cut away the ground beneath them; but above, fire, ashes, and hot water had been rained upon them from the fiery mountain, causing their death, and insuring their preservation for nearly two thousand years. On removing the *debris*, which consisted of the roof and ashes which had fallen into the interior of the house, something like a human form was discovered, though nothing but fine powder was visible. It occurred to Cavalier Florelli that this might be a kind of sarcophagus created by Vesuvius, and that within were the remains of one of the victims of that terrible eruption. But how to remove or preserve them? A happy idea struck him. Plaster of Paris was poured into an aperture, the interior having been discovered to be hollow in consequence of the destruction of the flesh, and mixing with and uniting with the bones, restored to the world a Roman lady of the first century.

Further researches led to the discovery of a male body, another woman, and that of a young girl; but that which first awakened the interest of the excavators was the finding of ninety-one pieces of silver money, four earrings, a finger-ring, all of gold, together with two iron keys and evident remains of a linen bag. These interesting relics have been now, successfully removed, and are lying in a house not far distant. They are to be preserved in Pompeii, and four bronze tables, of an antique fashion, are preparing for their reception.

The first body discovered was that of a woman, who lay on her right side, and from the twisted position of her body had been much convulsed. Her left hand and arm were raised and contorted, and the knuckles were bent in tightly; the right arm was broken, and at each end of the fragments the cellular character of the bones was seen. The form of the headdress and the hair were distinctly visible. On the bone of the little finger of the left hand were two silver rings, one of which was a guard. The sandals remain, or the soles at least, and iron, or nails are unmistakably to be seen. Though the body was much bent, the legs were extended as if under the influence of extreme pain.

In an inner chamber was found the figure of the young girl lying on its face, resting on its clasped hands and arms; the legs drawn up, the left lying over the right—the body thinly covered over in some parts by the scoriæ or the plaster, whilst the skull was visible, highly polished. One hand was partially closed, as if it had grasped something, probably her dress, with which it had covered the head. The finger-bones protruded through the

incrusted ashes, and on the surface of the body in various parts was distinctly visible the web of the linen with which it had been covered. There was lying by the side of the child a full grown woman, the left leg slightly elevated, whilst the right arm is broken; but the left, which is bent, is perfect, and the hand is closed. The little finger has an iron ring; the left ear, which is uppermost, is very conspicuous and stands off from the head. The folds of the drapery, the very web remain, and a nice observer might detect the quality of the dress.

The body of the man lay upon its back, with the legs stretched out to their full length. There was an iron ring on the little finger of the left hand, which, together with the arm, was supported by the elbow. The folds of the dress on the arm and over the whole upper part of the body were visible; the sandals were there, and the bones of one foot protruded through what might have been a broken sandal. The traces of the hair of the head and beard were there; and the breath of life, adds the writer, had only to be inspired into this and the other three figures to restore to the world of the nineteenth century the Romans of the first century. They might have fallen but yesterday, for were there not still remaining their sandals, their dress, the very tracery of their hair? They were trying to escape from destruction, for the bodies were found at a short distance one from the other, as if in the act of running. What could have induced them to remain so long it is only permitted to imagine. They were three women who, terror struck, had been unable, perhaps, to act until aided and urged forward by the man. It may be that with that attachment which binds us all so closely to our native place and our hearth, they still clung to their homes with the hope that the storm would soon pass away.

PROGRESS OF RAILWAY CONSOLIDATION.

Much as has been said of the absorption of other lines by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, it seems to be outdone by the recent combination made in Ohio, of which, as yet, very little has thus far been said here, most probably for the same reason that the great struggles at the West have made less noise in the world than the battles in Virginia—that is, distance from the seaboard. One of our exchanges states briefly the scope of this consolidation in the following terms:

"The combination includes both routes leading out of Cincinnati via Zenia and Dayton, which are practically one interest, reaching, via Columbus, to Cleveland; the Bellefontaine line from Indianapolis to Crestline; the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago Railroad from Crestline to Pittsburg; the Ohio Central Railroad from Columbus to Bellaire; and the Pittsburg, Columbus, and Cincinnati Railroad from Newark to Steubenville; also, the Lake Shore Road from Cleveland to Erie City.

"In other words, the combination extends from Cincinnati to Cleveland, and from this 'base line,' eastward along the lake shore, eastward to the Ohio river at Steubenville and Bellaire, and westward from Crestline to Indianapolis, comprising in all about 1,100 miles of road.

"The basis of this stupendous compact is a perpetual contract between the Little Miami and Columbus and Zenia Railroad companies of the first part, and the Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati Railroad company of the second part, which contract is to go into effect June 1, 1863."

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

Established July, 1839.

EDITED BY

WILLIAM B. DANA.

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